The Nation.

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The Week.

President Roosevelt is reported as ready to fight anybody who urges him to fight Japan. Such an attitude is suggestive of the great responsibility, with the large power, that rests upon any public man who may give a slant to public opinion, for or against war. In this Japanese affair the Administration has shown excellent judgment. Secretary Root has refused to treat the newspaper alarums as anything but a joke. The Secretary of War, far from displaying any desire to pose as an organizer of victory, has said that he would resign rather than have a war at all. And the President has fought almost truculently for peace. The net effect has been to make the whole bent of the nation towards a peaceful settlement of the difficulty. Now, this general inclination for peace is half the battle against war. It is as easy to cultivate a peaceful as a belligerent disposition. Either the Swettenham blunder or the Japanese complication would have sufficed, if the American press had been of the inflammable and warlike temper of 1895 or 1898, to set the country by the ears with England or Japan; but the calm good sense exhibited this year has made it plain even to unscrupulous politicians that they have nothing to gain by yelling for war.

Woodrow Wilson's book on "Congressional Government" brought out the immense power of committees in shaping legislation. What the committee is to the whole House, a skilled and experienced chairman may be to the committee itself. We have probably never had a better illustration of this than in the case of Representative Theodore E. Burton, and the Committee on Rivers and Harbors. His long service and particular competence have given him great weight and authority. This was signalized in the long debate on this year's large bill, authorizing appropriations of over $80,000,000, in the course of which he was not defeated on a single point of any consequence. Nor was this due to want of hot attack. A powerful Congressional combination was formed to force the fourteen-foot Mississippi channel scheme as an amendment, and the champions of the thirty-five-foot channel in the Delaware were almost equally insistent. But Chairman Burton met and vanquished them all. He thus succeeded partly because of his established prestige. The House has learned to have confidence both in his fairness and sound judgment. But Mr. Burton also makes himself a master of his subject. The debate proved, for example, that he had a better grasp of the technical features of the Mississippi improvement than had its stoutest advocates. This was rather amusingly shown when he called upon Representative Bartholdt to name one engineer who did not hold that the fourteen-foot channel would require canalization. After some fumbling, Mr. Bartholdt adduced the "Business Men's League of St. Louis." Mr. Burton naturally laughed.

Perennial hopefulness that the Senate in extra session will be less protection ridden than in regular session, probably accounts for the announcement that Senators will be convened after March 4 to consider a treaty of reciprocity with Germany. That such an agreement is highly desirable, even urgent, cannot be denied. The application of the maximum rates of the new German tariff to our exports was put off for a year expressly with a view to giving this country time to make the requisite concessions on German imports. It is a matter of vital importance to our foreign trade. Of this, our tariff experts returning from Germany are convinced—protectionists that they are. The German Government, after doing so well in the elections, will be less than ever inclined to delay enforcing the higher rates against us. It is, indeed, a business that requireth haste, and the treaty cannot too soon be laid before the Senate. If it is to remain absolutely Bourbon in tariff matters, the country is entitled to know the fact at the earliest day possible.

The project for subsidizing international airship lines, to which Representative John Sharp Williams has given ear, is deserving, so far as we can see, by every test which nowadays is applied to legislation. It will *make work* for Americans, and when a project does that, it does not matter in the least who has to pay for it. Merely to fish the unlucky aeronauts out the Atlantic would require a force of men to which we could point with pride. But the great point is that here we may steal a march on all our rivals. Our ordinary floating marine was destroyed, as we all know, because other countries first hit upon the vitalizing idea of subsidy. The recent subsidy bills in Congress have been merely efforts to recover spilt milk. Why worry about water-ships when airships are soon to displace them? Let us rather take the lead at once in subsidizing airships. Of these, at the expenditure of a few millions a year, we can have the first and the biggest fleet in the world.

An interesting aftermath of last year's interstate commerce agitation, is the campaign for reduction of passenger rates now in progress in several Western and Southern States. From the side of the railroads themselves this is doubtless regarded as merely another manifestation of the unreasoning "hostility" which is crippling and shackling our great business enterprises. But there are aspects of this campaign which go to show the short-sightedness of such a view. We doubt if any unbiassed person can read the reports of debates in the Legislatures of Kansas, Missouri, and other States, or the proceedings before the Wisconsin and other State railroad commissions, without perceiving that there exists a very wide and genuine disposition to do full justice to the railroads, to treat them not only fairly, but generously. We have seen this especially in the proposals to discriminate between lines on the basis of a fair return. The old way of expressing popular wrath against extortion was to pass a law fixing a flat rate and to try to compel all roads under all conditions to conform thereto. In very much that way, the States which first created railroad commissions made it the duty of these bodies to settle all the rates under their jurisdiction at once. Of late, as Prof. Frank Haigh Dixon and others have pointed out, the tendency has been to create rate-making agencies that can allow for diverse and changing conditions. These are being recognized in the present work in actually fixing rates. In both Kansas and Missouri, for instance, the two-cent fare bills now pending give to branch and local lines the right to charge a higher rate per mile than the more important roads. In Wisconsin, where the Commission gave exhaustive hearings to the representatives of the railroads as well as the citizens and organizations urging lower fares, some of the lines made such a convincing demonstration of the fact that a two-cent rate in their cases would be unprofitable, that a recognition of the difference between roads advantageously situated and those which cannot afford to provide two-cent passenger transportation, is thought likely to be a permanent feature of the State's railroad policy.

For all of the month during which Gov. Hughes has now been in office, the politicians at Albany have been narrowly watching him in order to "get a line" on him. He was a new man in politics. How much did he understand of the

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game? The great men of the party have stood about the Governor very much with the baffled air of the critics, as Dr. Holmes described them, standing about Emerson—pointer dogs in the presence of an unknown animal. But they, and the people of the State, are beginning to find out what manner of man the new Governor is. Mr. Hughes means to be Governor. With nothing theatric about him, he has made it plain that he is the head of his own Administration. He holds his consultation in the open. Sly party Nicodemuses no longer go to the Executive Chamber by night, or by subterranean passages and the back door. Mr. Hughes has also put it beyond doubt that he intends to strike hard for pure and efficient government. His prompt routing out of petty grafters and incapables from the Capitol is an earnest of the business-like sense and reforming zeal which he brings to his office. Such an administration is a refreshing novelty in this State. The attitude which Gov. Hughes means to assume towards the Legislature has also been pretty clearly indicated. He said last week: "The time for the Governor to give his opinion of a bill is when it comes before him for either signature or veto." This is a general rule which is not only correct Constitutionally, but one calculated to save the Governor a great deal of time and worry. In the larger matters of constructive legislation, however, it is doubtful if the Governor will be able, or will desire, to maintain entire detachment. On some reform laws for the benefit of the people of the whole State he has set his heart. In their drafting he cannot fail to take a deep interest. But from the run of the work of the Legislature it is sound policy for him to keep his hands off. All in all, the new Governor acts like a man in a fair way to master the unfamiliar task set him by the people.

The presumption is generally against the multiplication of educational and other public and semi-public institutions when those we already have are so in need of money. But the proposed New York Observatory and Nautical Museum, which the Legislature has been asked to charter, makes out an exceptional case. New York is almost the only large city which possesses no astronomical observatory of any rank. Although the chief port of this country, we have no "institution devoted to the interests of the navigator, to the investigation of new methods and new discoveries in shipbuilding and ship-sailing; no museum where can be studied the development of the modern vessel, where can be found the charts and aids to the navigator." The need for study of tides and currents affecting the shipping of this port as well as for investigation of navigation problems generally, is doubtless great. An institution formed for these purposes would also have a secondary educational value to the general public and would shortly become one of the show-places of the city. The influential men who are promoting this enterprise are doing a real service to the city which gave the world the Clermont and the Monitor.

John D. Rockefeller's gift of $32,000,000 to the General Education Board—the largest of the kind ever made—is, we believe, money wisely spent. In the first place, all our institutions of learning are confronted with the serious problem of maintaining the efficiency of their teaching force. The recent rapid increase in the cost of living has pressed very hard on teachers of all grades, from the kindergarten to the professional school. Those who have already embarked on the career are keenly pinched; energetic and ambitious young men see little to attract them in a calling which does not promise fair support for a family. If, then, we are to keep our schools and colleges abreast of population and progress, we must raise salaries all round. Thus it is that, in spite of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and in spite of other generous donations to the cause, there has hardly been a time when gifts for education were more needed. Moreover, Mr. Rockefeller's millions are placed in the hands of skilful administrators. The General Education Board is not, from the very nature of its work, a conspicuous institution. It has no building to catch the eye; it merely occupies such offices as a firm of lawyers might hire. But it has the advice of the best experts as to the investment of its funds and the expenditure of the income. Educators are aware that it has already amassed an enormous amount of exact and perfectly classified information in regard to the schools and colleges of this country. If you wish to know the status of any college—the attendance, the resources, the curriculum, the strength of the faculty, the standards of scholarship, the intellectual and moral conditions—the General Education Board can usually furnish the facts, so far as they are to be had. It has won a reputation for discretion and liberality that has warranted this colossal addition to its resources.

Prof. E. A. Kirkpatrick of the Fitchburg State Normal School has set forth in the *Popular Science Monthly* the results of an extensive test of the vocabularies of school children and college students. With Webster's "Academic Dictionary" as his subject-matter, he selected one hundred words by taking the first, last, or other definitely placed word on every sixth page, submitting this list for the subject to mark with plus signs, minus signs, or question marks, and then setting down that person's vocabulary by applying the proportion known to the 28,000 words in the book. Children in the second grade, he finds, understand, on an average, 4,480 words apiece. In the eighth grade of the grammar school, the figure rises to 12,000—more than are in the Bible. In the freshman year of the high school the pupil's vocabulary reaches 15,640. In the senior year of the high school it passes the limit set by a Milton concordance, and stands at 18,720. Vocabularies among college students average 20,120 words, or about the number used by Shakespeare. Each number represents, be it remembered, "all words that you would not, as to their meaning, have to look up in a dictionary if you saw them in a sentence." Plainly, then, whatever may be the shortcomings of the rising generation, deficiency in vocabulary is not among them. As corroborative testimony, we have the tests ingeniously made by several well-known scholars on their own vocabularies. Three results of such inquiries, reported to us by a correspondent, were 33,500, 35,250, and 37,000 English words respectively. Nor would an inquiry among those of most meagre academic education be likely to show results so much inferior as might be supposed. Any one who has taken the trouble to examine the two most despised members of the literary family, the paper-bound thriller for boys and the paper-bound romance for young women—typified, say, by "Old King Brady" and "A Working Girl's Wrongs"—knows that, while the ideas and emotions conveyed are simple to absurdity, the language is not particularly easy. Both, perversely as it seems, are a good deal nearer the stilted diction of the eighteenth century than are the pages of a high-grade magazine.

Spanish America forges to the front in the news with reports of war threatened in Central America, an insurrection in Argentina, and another in preparation or already in being in Venezuela. In spite of last summer's outburst of enthusiasm over the Pan-American Conference and Secretary Root's missionary journey to the Latins, in spite of the absolute necessity of a ship subsidy enabling us to monopolize the trade of South America, it is a fact that we are little interested in the affairs of the republics to the south of us, and that their only chance of attracting notice is by raising a row. Thereupon we send down a white cruiser, on whose clean decks Central America makes peace and renews, with beautiful optimism, that ideal of a Central American federation and those numerous treaties of amity and arbitration which amuse the foreign concessionary on the hunt for timber lands. And yet it must be that the southern republics produce something

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besides revolutions, nitre, and provincial cédulas. There is an intellectual life stirring. Chile has produced respectable historians; Argentina is ambitiously seeking to develop a new Latin civilization, largely on the French model. Evidently, they have an opera, for we hear now and then of Calvé coming from Buenos Ayres to New York, and a theatre, since Ermete Novelli, whom New York has not seen, comes to us from the south. How much of all that life do we know?

Germany presents the remarkable spectacle of both sides in a struggle rejoicing in victory. The Centre points, with justifiable pride, to its notable achievement in repelling the Government's attack and returning to the Reichstag with augmented strength. The Emperor rejoices over the downfall of the Socialists, whom he had not dreamt of overthrowing. He is the Cadi who ordered the tall dyer to be hanged in his own doorway, and when it was ascertained that the doorway was too low and the dyer too tall, gave orders that a short dyer be found and hanged instead. Complete figures for the new Reichstag indicate only a modest majority for the Government. Should Conservatives (59), Reichspartei (21), National Liberals (55), Radicals (46), Agrarians (23), Anti-Semites (6), and independents (10) rally to its support, it will count 220 votes against the 177 votes of the Centre (105), Socialists (43), Poles (20), Alsatians (7), Guelphs (1), and Danes (1) But, except on the specific German Southwest Africa budget, it is scarcely possible to conceive such an unholy alliance as one between Agrarians and *Freisinnige*. The election has robbed the Socialists of the gain which popular dissatisfaction with the Agrarian policy brought them in 1903, and something more. But the gain has gone for the greater part to the Centre and the Liberals, and the chronic difficulties of the Emperor with his Reichstag have not apparently been removed.

A treaty concluded a short time ago between Germany and Denmark offers confirmation of the truth that he who endures to the end in politics shall be saved. The agreement harks back to the old Schleswig-Holstein question, which has been responsible for more aching heads among historians than any other topic of ancient or modern times. The treaty of 1866 between Austria and Prussia provided that the northern districts of the duchy of Schleswig, which had been incorporated by Prussia after the Danish war, should be restored to Denmark after a plebiscite had been taken. Such a plebiscite the Prussian Government has carefully avoided taking, until Denmark in the present treaty has made formal acknowledgment of the *status quo*. In Germany the treaty is regarded with all the more satisfaction, because it puts an end to the anomalous position by which the children of Schleswig parents who, after the war of 1864, chose to remain Danish subjects, have been prevented from becoming either Danish or Prussian citizens owing to differences in the interpretation of the treaty of peace. There was thus created a class of men without a country (*Heimatslose*), whose unfortunate legal position was responsible for much of the discontent with which German rule has had to contend. Like the Poles, Hanoverians, and the French of Alsace-Lorraine, the Danes have been represented by a small faction in the Reichstag. In the latest election they have chosen one member. He, too, will probably disappear soon.

The Persians, who are often called the French of Asia, are displaying qualities which should entitle them rather to comparison with France's neighbors across the channel. It is one thing to win a Constitution from an autocrat by means of a carefully engineered popular uprising; it is another to maintain popular unity after the initial success, and to continue extorting concessions without resorting to terror. The Russian liberals, for example, have not yet learned how. The late Shah was brought to promise constitutional government a few months ago by a general secession among the middle and upper classes of Teheran, who abandoned the capital and established a new "tent city" in the grounds of the British legation. Admirable order was preserved then, and order seems to prevail now in the conduct of the Parliament's campaign against the Shah. The latter has probably been forced to yield because of the support which the liberal movement draws from Persia's two sworn friends and protectors—Great Britain and Russia. The attitude of the former is indicated by the incident we have cited. The influence of Russian conditions, if not of the Government itself, is discernible in the disturbances reported to have occurred at Tabriz, which, situated not far from the Caucasian border, has undoubtedly experienced the revolutionary fever.

That the English Liberals are nettled at their thwarting by the Lords is undoubted, but that they have decided that "the House of Lords must go," we may well question. The Attorney-General's speech to that effect last Friday was admittedly more rhetorical than official. So daring and important a party programme would scarcely be announced by anybody but the Prime Minister. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, it is true, held pretty stern language about the upper House, at the time of its slaughter of the innocent Education Bill; and Winston Churchill has talked of a possible dissolution in 1908 on the issue of the supremacy of the Commons. But presumably all this looks more to party strategy than a fixed party policy. If the Liberals are expecting the Lords to throw out some popular bill and so give them a fine chance to appeal to the country, they will find, we believe, that the Lords will take precious good care not to accommodate them. Hence the cry against the Lords is not to be taken as going very much beyond *Punch's* version of it: "Mr. Birrell says he will give the Lords *one more chance*, and then! Why, then, he'll give them another." Furthermore, we may be pretty sure that nothing will be done, or even decided upon, until after the London County Council elections early in March. If the Liberals lose as heavily as they did in the recent borough elections in London, they will not have the stomach to attack the Lords very savagely.

Within the span of W. H. Russell's life, now ended, the world saw the beginning and the high development of war correspondence. Before the Crimean War it could scarcely be said to have existed. Such information as newspapers got from the seat of war was haphazard and irregular. But after Russell's remarkable work in 1854-56, giving as it did to the English people a flood of light upon the organization and maladministration of the army, as well as accounts of military operations, the war correspondent has been almost as much of a necessity as the commander-in-chief. He may be an affliction to the officers in charge: Gen. Sherman wanted the whole genus hanged; but at least in all wars waged by democratic countries, he is a fixture. The people who raise and pay for the armies will insist upon having news from the front. Japan was able in her last war to keep the correspondents at a distance from the firing line, and to suppress news until after knowledge of it had ceased to be an advantage to the enemy; but even Japan, as she becomes more democratized, will be compelled to meet the public demand for information about battles. Russell was not merely an extraordinary war correspondent, with a keen eye for strategy and a signal mastery of details; he was a great traveller and shrewd observer. His account of Bull Run raised a loud outcry in this country; but more noteworthy every way was his "Diary," recording his observations in the South on the eve of the Civil War. With every prepossession in favor of his friends and hosts in that region, he was yet compelled to set down his conviction that their system was an anachronism. The economic blunder as well as the moral wrong of slavery was demonstrated by Russell with something of the precision of Olmsted.

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LIMITING MONEY IN ELECTIONS.

William R. Hearst, shocked by the discovery that somebody paid as much as $250,000 as a candidate for Governor of New York, is again calling attention to the need of a law limiting expenditures in elections. He does not, however, approve of the recommendation of Gov. Hughes, that the sum beyond which a candidate may not lawfully go, should be fixed by statute. That would be all wrong, Mr. Hearst argues, since it would "prevent any financial independence on the part of candidates." But it would also prevent any one with a degree of financial independence as high as Mr. Hearst's, and political scrupulousness as low as his, from buying nominations and personally conducting a campaign with his own check-book.

This subject however, is one that should be discussed without reference to personalities. Indeed, we are free to say that one of Mr. Hearst's points seems to us well taken. This is that a limitation should be put upon the amount that may be expended by anybody, candidate or committeee, in elections. Our corrupt-practices laws have been largely tentative. We have been feeling our way. In this State we now have an act forbidding corporations to contribute to campaign funds; and Congress has passed, and the President signed, a bill to prevent in the future such scandalous diversions of the funds of insurance companies as were made to aid in the election of Mr. Roosevelt. But with these old sources of supply now cut off, will not the resulting tendency be to turn to candidates able and willing to pay for their own campaigns? This danger was clearly exemplified in the case of Hearst. His being made a candidate for the Governorship was undoubtedly due in part to the fact that he stood ready to spend large sums to secure the nomination, and at least a quarter of a million to further his election. This startling illustration of what a rich man might do with his purse to gratify his political ambition, clearly had much to do with the proposal to restrict the amount which candidates for office may pay out. This, we think, should be done; but something also should be done to limit the cost of an electoral canvass, in whatever way the sinews of war may be obtained.

When we set about in earnest the strengthening of our corrupt-practices legislation, we shall not be too proud to take a leaf out of English experience. English elections, a hundred and fifty years ago, or even seventy-five years ago, were more corrupt than American elections have ever been. Franklin's description of British electoral methods as he observed them—tainted with bribery throughout—has been often quoted. The tax on candidates for Parliament long continued onerous—the heavy expense necessarily being in good part corrupt. Lord Durham's biographer records the fact that one of his contested elections cost him $150,000. The buying of votes was open. Reform was slow in coming. Indeed, there died at Oxford last year an old man who lived so much in the past that it was his habit, in the good old early Victorian fashion, to sally forth and unblushingly try to purchase votes for his favorite candidate for Parliament. As this practice has now become sufficient to unseat a successful candidate, the old gentleman's support was, naturally, considered as a thing to be afraid of even while duly grateful for.

When, however, English reformers went to work to extirpate electoral corruption, so far as legislation could do so, they made a thorough job of it. Various ballot acts and election commissioners acts led up at last to the Corrupt and Illegal Practices Prevention Act of 1883. Its full text shows it to be extraordinarily minute and sweeping. Every conceivable activity of a candidate or his agent is foreseen and regulated. Directly to our present purpose, there is rigid limitation of election expenses. The date when they legally begin to run in any constituency; the persons by whom they may be made; the forms of declaring them under oath—all is provided for with the utmost detail. Finally, there is the fixing of the "Maximum Scale." This determines the amounts that may lawfully be expended in a Parliamentary election in the different constituencies. The sum varies, both with locality and the number of voters. In a borough election, where the number of electors on the register does not exceed 2,000, the maximum amount that may be legally expended is £350; above 2,000 the sum is put at £380, with an additional £30 for "every complete 1,000 electors above 2,000." In a county, where it is presumably more difficult to "get out the vote," the permitted expenses run higher—£650 for a register not exceeding 2,000, with an additional £60 for each 1,000 voters more. There is a lower rate, in all cases, for Irish constituencies.

The testimony is conclusive that this law, enforced as it is by the courts, has been the means of rendering English elections very much purer than they used to be. The time has come for us in the United States to proceed, by similar legislation, against the great evils of the use of money, almost certainly corrupt when too lavish, in our elections.

RUSSIAN FREEDOM AND FAMINE.

In the London *Times* there is an appeal for aid in behalf of the famine-stricken peasants of Russia, signed by Nikolai Shishkoff, a member of the Zemstvo Relief Association of the Government of Samara. This is his third experience in the task of combating starvation. He was in the great famine of 1891-92, in the lesser visitation of 1899, and he declares that the present famine "bids fair to become one of the most awful calamities that even Russia has ever witnessed." There has been destitution for several months; actual starvation was ushered in with the new year; but the floodtide of misery is expected to come about the end of March or the beginning of April.

Conditions are described by Mr. Shishkoff with mathematical precision, varied by comments on local conditions. In twenty-five provinces the crops have been far below the average, and in eight or ten there has been a total failure. In Samara the grain harvested has been less than half the amount sown. As far back as the middle of last November, one-fourth of the horses and cattle had perished. Cottages are being demolished for fuel; clothes, utensils, cattle, future crops, and labor are being sold; the last supplies of rye flour or millet are mixed with bran, grass seed, chaff, and even straw; and thousands have been living for months on acorns. When relief-kitchens are established, many of the poorest cannot come, because they dare not face the cold without clothes and shoes. And the present winter is the bitterest the Continent has known for many years. Says M. Shishkoff:

> I have myself seen a peasant carry one of his children, wrapped up in the remnants of a sheepskin cloak, to our kitchen, put the child down, perfectly naked, on a bench, and take away the rag of a cloak to bring his other child in.

What are the causes that have made such conditions chronic? In the simplest terms, the population to feed has been rapidly growing, while resources—land, working capital, and intelligence among the cultivators of the soil—have been either at a standstill or actually declining. According to Prof. Vladmir G. Simkhovitch, writing in the *Political Science Quarterly*, the average number of dessiatines of land for each male peasant in the fifty governments of European Russia (the dessiatine equals 2.7 acres) has declined from 4.8 in 1860 to 2.6 in 1900, or almost one-half, while farm stock has sunk from 1,456 per 1,000 of the population in 1870, to 1,026 in 1900, and horses from 169 to 145. Professor Simkhovitch adds:

> Small as these peasant land-holdings are, they might have been sufficient in a country where education, self-reliance, and honest work are encouraged. But not so in the Empire of the Czar, where almost every educated man is suspected as a political criminal, and where the education of the peasant has been systematically suppressed.

And if there be human grit and industry to overcome even such obstacles, there are the Imperial taxes. The land-

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tax ranges anywhere from 100 to over 200 per cent. (counting in the accumulated arrears) of the possible land-income, while indirect taxes amount to 45 rubles in an annual peasant budget of 100 rubles. Whether owing to lack of land, unscientific methods of cultivation, or exacting contributions to the state, famine, in the last interpretation, spells absolutism.

The Government has not failed to recognize the state of affairs. Famine in a time of revolutionary upheaval calls for attention, and the peasants have accordingly received a succession of favors. Their acquisition of land has been facilitated. But the Stolypin Ministry has chosen to find the main root of the evil in the communal system under which the peasants have held their land since emancipation, and has set to work to do away with it. Emancipation found the Russian peasants dwelling in village-communities (the *mir*), on land belonging to private owners or the Crown, whose serfs they were. Emancipation liberated them from their masters and gave them land to cultivate; but as a guarantee for the payment of the redemption money advanced by the state to the commune, the submission of the peasant to the *mir* was emphasized. Wherever he went, he carried his peasant status with him. At home he cultivated his share of the land allotted him periodically by the commune. As an artisan in the city, he was still responsible for the debts and taxes of his village.

This exceptional status of the peasant the Government has now done away with. In the full light which terrorism casts upon a throne, it was discovered that it had been the original intent of the Czar Liberator to introduce, with emancipation, an individualist régime, and that the communal system, as we have said, had been made use of as a financial expedient. The term of forty-nine years had been fixed for the redemption of the peasants' debts to the state. What more simple than to hasten the process? Accordingly, a ukase of November 16, 1905, declared that from January 1, 1907, the peasant debts would be considered extinguished, and therewith the *raison d'être* of the commune was done away with. There followed various concessions in the form of land grants, till the ukase of November 25, 1906, crowned the work by decreeing for every peasant liberty to dissociate himself from his commune, with a claim of personal proprietorship in the assignment of land he had enjoyed within the *mir*.

The action of the Government has been characterized as a sop to the peasants, whom it would charm away from the arms of the revolutionists. But it is more than that. It is a direct blow at one of the main pillars of the ideal edifice erected by the Russian Social Revolutionaries, who undoubtedly sway the vast mass of peasant opinion. From their revolutionary ancestors of the reign of Alexander II. they had inherited the belief that, with its rural communal system, Russia offered an unparalleled field for social reconstruction. The *mir* was an essentially socialistic organization that might be improved upon, but was so much ready gain as it stood. Thus the dissolution of the *mir* is undoubtedly intended to cut the ground from under the Revolutionaries.

EXPLORATION AND NATIONAL ADVERTISING.

Reports of noted geographical achievements come thick and fast nowadays. We have scarcely, so to speak, warmed up to Commander Peary when a message reaches us from Sven Hedin of Stockholm, Tibet, and the Pamir. In Europe exploration at present enjoys the patronage of the "very best people." A royal lecturer in the person of the Duke of the Abruzzi addresses royal audiences in Rome and London on his latest work in Africa, and King Edward VII. rises to move the customary vote of thanks to the speaker of the evening. The French Academy of Sciences assembles to consider the report of the Prince of Monaco's discoveries in Spitzbergen. From Belgium we are informed that a national expedition is soon to be dispatched to the Antarctic, whence another great national expedition, the British under Capt. Scott, has only recently returned.

If to the Duke of the Abruzzi and the Prince of Monaco we add the Duke of Orleans, who in 1905 added his name to the list of Arctic explorers by sailing his Belgica up the east coast of Greenland to a "farthest north" at 78° 16′, we face the interesting fact that princely blood is coming to the front in a field of commendable activity. In a sense, kings, thrones, and principalities have always been zealous in encouraging geographical enterprise, from old Hatasu, who dispatched her Egyptian admiral for spices to the land of Punt, through another queen who sent her admiral westward in search of souls more precious than spices, and Prince Henry the Navigator, to Leopold of Belgium sending Stanley to Africa, and Oscar II. of Sweden, who has backed Sven Hedin's ventures in Central Asia. But it is one thing to unroll unknown continents by deputy, like Mark Twain's climbing the Matterhorn through a telescope, and another to assume the actual dangers and hardships of exploration. This our modern princes of discovery have begun to do, as admirably exemplified in the case of Luigi of the house of Savoy. He has brought to the work not only the courage and devotion of his crusading ancestors, but modesty and a spirit of *noblesse oblige* which has allowed his companions to enjoy their full share of the labor and the resulting glory.

Commander Peary has repeatedly appealed to our sense of patriotism in the matter of the conquest of the Pole. The same fervent national sentiments characterize the Duke of the Abruzzi's speeches. It is valuable work, this sliding and floating and climbing, painstaking, disinterested, scientific work, but it is also work for the glory of *il rè* and *la patria*. Nor is the feeling one that we can call mere patriotic vanity. With it, consciously or unconsciously, dwells the conviction that such triumphs of the flag redound to the material welfare of the fatherland by enhancing its dignity and spreading abroad its name among the nations. Especially is this true of the smaller states or the countries that, by themselves, would not be reckoned as first-class Powers. The empires of the earth can hold a place in the first rank by armies and many ships; the weaker members must seek to gain eminence in more peaceful ways. Literature is one field where they may win against the force of numbers; witness Norway's Ibsen and Björnson or Denmark's Brandes. Geographical exploration is another. Thus, to go back to Italy one more, we cannot see how one can read Commander Cagni's account of the famous dash for 86° 33′, so modestly and simply told, without gaining in admiration for a Mediterranean race that could cope successfully with the terrors of the Arctic. Before such proof, Anglo-Saxon ideas as to Latin "softness" should vanish; and though the initiated may have known before this of the intrepid industry of the Italian day laborer and the skill of Italian engineers, professional men, and scientists, it needed a hair-raising performance to proclaim the fact to the world.

Some such conviction of the value of geographical exploration as an advertising medium undoubtedly underlies a venture like the proposed Belgian Antarctic expedition. Belgium needs no colonies even if they are only ice and seawater; at present she has all the difficulties she cares for with Congo and with the King. But Belgium is an aggressive, a "live" country, and it cannot fight because it is small and neutralized. Moreover, it has vast manufacturing interests and large stores of capital to invest, and as a capitalist and a producer it needs advertising. A signal *coup* in the scientific world would increase Belgian prestige in Russia, in Japan, in other parts of the Far East. To her the Antarctic Circle is a vast Hackensack Meadows, on which she has sent her devoted sons to smear in letters a degree of latitude wide, "Use Charleroi Coal," or "Katanga Rubber—the Best," or "Kaffirs Cry for Liège Refrigerators." There is no intention here of imputing selfish motives to a scientific undertaking by which all the world

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must profit. The point made is only that in this form of activity national well-being seeks to realize itself no less than in actual war for customers and colonies.

Rich men in our own country have not been slow in following the example set by royal explorers of Europe. It is a blessed thing to own a roomy steam-yacht. It is more blessed to clap a party of scientists and photographers on board and run them up to the Bering Sea in summer, where they map and sound and botanize and zoölogize for the benefit of human knowledge, and to the greater glory of the owner of the boat. It is a sport that can never be vulgarized, and it appeals to primal instincts. We have no monsters now whom one can fight except the Trusts, and no swamps to drain except politics. Only the unmapped ice-field, the unscaled mountain, and the uncrossed desert hold forth opportunities for the spirit of the conquistador.

AUTOMOBILE RACING.

Is automobile racing on the wane? The question is being widely asked in consequence of the evident falling off in public interest in the race week at Ormond, Florida. The last Vanderbilt Cup race did, it is true, attract greater crowds than ever before, but the conditions were so unsatisfactory as to make the contestants themselves say it would probably be the last on the Long Island course. The projectors of the Long Island Motor Parkway propose to run their special dustless automobile highway down through the island under what would be ideal conditions for straight-road racing. So far as we are aware, they are not yet concerning themselves with such contests, but are merely preparing an exclusive automobile road on which the motorist proper may travel as fast as he pleases without fear of the country constable. For the spectators, a race over a long, straight road, like the beach at Ormond, has obvious disadvantages; they can only witness the start or a lightning finish—a half-minute's enjoyment hardly worth travelling far to get.

As yet there is no proposal to build in this country an elaborate motor-race track similar to that now being constructed within twenty miles of London, in the heather and pine region of Surrey, by the Brooklands Motor Racing Club. This organization, duly authorized by the Automobile Club of Great Britain and Ireland, is laying out an elliptical track two and three-quarters miles in length, the sharper ends of the ellipse banked up to great heights for reasons of safety. For some distance the outside edge of the track is to be twenty-six feet higher than the inside edge—if we may trust the London *Spectator's* figures. Throughout the summer and autumn there are to be held a number of races for valuable cups and trophies, for which the entrance-fees will range from $80 to $260; and it is confidently expected that the races will be so exciting as to attract sight-seers from the Continent, as well as from all over Great Britain. So far as possible, the language and customs of horse-racing will be adhered to; even handicap contests are looked forward to when once the season is well under way, and the track has been tried out.

Naturally, this elaborate plan for motor racing has led to considerable inquiry as to whether it is likely to help or hinder a sane development of the sport. Since road-racing in England no longer attracts any attention, the argument that the new track will tend to end the use of public roads for racing does not carry much weight. As the *Spectator* points out, English manufacturers have in the last few years been endeavoring chiefly to produce strong, comfortable, quiet, and simple cars, which are at the same time good hill-climbers and reasonably cheap. In this development speed has not played the main part, and as a result the makers have met with great success in giving the public the car it wants. Any such thing as a craze for racing which would hinder this progress along sound and conservative lines ought to be severely frowned upon. The manufacturers, it is true, might like a track on which to try their cars. But the question of safety is also to be considered. With all its precautions, the Brooklands Club can give no assurance that there will not be terrible accidents.

Had the *Spectator* wished to quote an English racing expert, it could have turned to Charles Jarrott's new book on motor-racing, called "Ten Years with Motor Cars." Speaking of the value of racing to the industry, this famous driver declares:

> I am personally of the opinion that a speed race, pure and simple, without other conditions, is not now as beneficial to the industry as it was two or three years ago. It is very difficult to define the line where horsepower becomes abnormal, but nevertheless I cannot help thinking that cars containing engines developing 150 horsepower are not the vehicles which we are wanting, or which are necessary to teach us the valuable lessons I have set forth. . . .
>
> Speed, pure and simple, now teaches us nothing. Speed was never necessary for sport, and its sole value at the present moment is the assistance it gives to the quick elimination of the competitors through accidents. The problem should be efficiency for given size and weight. As the sporting side of racing is now practically non-existent, the driving factor and the individual skill of the driver should be put at the biggest discount possible, and every facility given for a decision to be arrived at on the efficiency, or otherwise, of the vehicle itself. The only justification for motor-racing at the present time is that it benefits the industry, and when the time comes, as come it must, that it does not benefit the industry, that very day racing will be finished.

At the same time, Jarrott thinks that the debt the industry owes to the sport ought not to be overlooked. He is afraid that the next generation of automobilists will be unable to remember that the great speed-racing which took place between 1896 and 1906 had much to do with the perfecting of well-designed and carefully made cars. Undoubtedly, Mr. Jarrott is right in saying that the early racing established the reputation of some of the great French automobiles, like the Panhard-Levassor and the Dietrich. Our own American manufacturers, who have made such wonderful strides of late years, are careful to advertise any racing successes that they now achieve; but, after all, they would, we think, prefer to dwell more upon the endurance tests, which are growing in frequency. We may be wrong in thinking that the craze for speed is subsiding even with those who are buying their first cars, and that more and more people are satisfied with moderate horse-power where they once looked for forty or fifty. But whether right or wrong about this, we are certain that more and more intending purchasers look to tests like the Glidden tour when making up their minds what to buy. Nor does it seem to us likely that, even if there is a cessation of racing, there will be any falling off in the remarkable progress of the American car.

LAPPONI ON SPIRITISM.

The late Dr. Giuseppe Lapponi's book on "Hypnotism and Spiritism," which made such a stir at Rome—coming as it did from a man who had been medical adviser to two Popes—has now been translated into both German and French. It will be read with interest by the curious, and may afford some satisfaction to the credulous. It is not, however, as was reported, an unconditional endorsement of spiritualism. In discussing hypotism, he traverses ground already made familiar by the investigations of Charcot and his school, of Bernheim, Liègeois, and Pierre Janet. That part of the book which deals with spiritualism is, however, a strange mixture of caution and superstition. It shows how easily a man of scientific training may lose his footing when a fixed idea takes possession of his mind.

Dr. Lapponi writes of the "Facts of Spiritism," but among them he includes reports of unusual phenomena which are far from being well authenticated. He nowhere relates his own experiences; all these "facts" are reported at second hand. He cites the famous Crookes case as if the account were beyond question; and tells of the Indian

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maiden who appeared to the Crookes household in a cloud, and spent the day with them, thus enabling the English investigator to test her reality by taking her photograph and temperature. Dr. Lapponi also accepts the narrative of the Pansini family, which was vouched for by an Italian archbishop, a bishop, an archdeacon, a Protestant minister, and some politicians. Two children in this family lived miraculous lives; one of them was a clairvoyant, and both of them had the power of disappearing mysteriously, and of reappearing, in a comparatively short time, at distant places.

Though Dr. Lapponi admits freely that there have been many instances of self-deception and fraud, he seems, on the whole, to have had few misgivings about "spiritistic" phenomena. He gives a list of great men who have been "the best known witnesses and partisans of spiritism." It must be said that his list is somewhat surprising, and does not add to the confidence which one feels in Dr. Lapponi's statements and conclusions. Among these "witnesses and partisans" are numbered Walter Scott and Victor Hugo, Gladstone and Lincoln, Humphry Davy and Tyndall, Lombroso and Oliver Lodge.

Dr. Lapponi rejects certain hypotheses which have been constructed to explain the facts reported. They are not, in his opinion, phenomena of a diseased brain, for "a great number of extraordinary manifestations of spiritism are concerned with purely physical facts which modify the natural conditions of objects or of material instruments without any interposition of intelligence or of human volition." He prefers a supernatural explanation, and describes all animate nature as a hierarchy. As man is above the lower animals, so there are beings superior to man both in intelligence and physical power. They form a series on a scale of gradually increasing perfection. These superior beings have the power to interfere in human affairs; but they are not always accessible, and may not always come when invoked. He writes:

> I affirm that the most severe modern criticism, which is now called *hypercriticism*, cannot deny the existence of a certain number, however small it may be, of real spiritualistic phenomena, unless it refuses to be logical and sincere in accordance with its general methods of investigation, unless it prefers to close its eyes to the full light of the sun.

That is, after all allowances and deductions, there is still a residuum of facts which point unmistakably toward spiritualism.

When a man of science takes such a position, the proper inquiry to be made is not so much how the occurrences can be explained, as why he believes that such occurrences have taken place. No doubt, a natural history of those who profess to have observed these extraordinary phenomena would throw much light upon the trustworthiness of their reports. Many become spiritualists upon what they suppose is sufficient evidence, and in this number are to be included all those who are deceived either by themselves or by others. It seems strange, however, that Dr. Lapponi should not have reasoned about such phenomena as he would have done had they been ordinary natural occurrences. Given a great number of unusual events, if in a majority of cases they can be proved to have been illusory, the probability, scientifically speaking, is overwhelming that any remaining phenomena which cannot at present be explained are yet capable of a natural explanation.

Those who regard spiritualism as a religion will be grieved at Dr. Lapponi's estimate of its ethical value:

> Spiritism is always dangerous, baleful, immoral, and should be forbidden and condemned unrestrictedly, in all degrees, under all forms, and in all its possible manifestations. At most, there may be some excuse in special cases for a study of spiritistic phenomena, by authorized persons of acknowledged competence, provided they have no part in producing the phenomena which they investigate.

This conclusion seems to mean that spiritualism, although not necessarily fraudulent, is diabolic. Familiar spirits should not be summoned from the unseen world, but if some misguided Saul sees fit to invoke a Witch of Endor, those who are properly qualified may test the reality of the apparition. A loophole is thus furnished for "psychical researchers"; of course, they are "authorized persons of acknowledged competence."

THE PROFESSION OF BOOK-AGENT.

Book-agents, as they themselves confess, enjoy none too high a repute. The word calls up a vision of the amiable college-boy who spends his vacation in trying to persuade the lawyer, the doctor, and the minister of a country village to buy Ridpath's "Cyclopædia of Universal History" or Talmage's "From Manger to Throne." No one wants the books, but every one subscribes in order to help the poor fellow out. He is an object of charity. Then, there is the leering person who tries to render dull and decorous works attractive by labelling them "Court Memoirs," and assuring you that they must be kept out of reach of the children. His prototype it was who sold hundreds of copies of Young's "Night Thoughts" to virtuous farmers by pretending that this portentously pious poem was naughty. More disagreeable still is the aggressive woman with sets of standard authors which every gentleman must buy or write himself down an ignoramus. And finally we have those book-agents who have recently been sued in this city for unloading on rich and silly persons, at fabulous prices, so-called *éditions de luxe* of Shakespeare, Thackeray, Roosevelt, and other classics. Only last month we noted the pathetic case of a woman who gave $6,250 each for sets of Shakespeare and Thackeray, and $6,000 for Roosevelt. When she had paid her money, she found she had got merely "well-known and easily procurable copies" of these authors—tricked out with special title-pages, "certain illustrations of showy character, but intrinsically of little value," and gaudy bindings. These several types of book-agent, who bulk large in the eye of the public, have blackened the name of the whole tribe.

And yet there are book-agents whose skill in a field which demands fine intelligence entitles them to rank in the learned professions. We described last week the extraordinary library of William C. Van Antwerp of the New York Stock Exchange. Mr. Van Antwerp, like J. Pierpont Morgan, Robert Hoe, and other collectors, is doubtless well informed as to the "points" of rare books; but neither he nor any other man could get together such a library without the help of experts in this country and London. He must consult them as to prices, provenience, and the minutiæ of bibliographical knowledge. These literary *cognoscenti* seem as reluctant as orthodox physicians to advertise themselves. They are few in number: Boston, New York, and Philadelphia may not contain, all told, more than five or six. If, however, the fashion of book-collecting spreads, there may be room for one or two more. The calling is not one which we urge young men to enter; for it may easily become overcrowded.

The agent of whom we speak must in the first place know books from the collector's point of view—and that is to know a great deal. A competent clerk in any bookshop can tell you all about the current issues—publishers, number of volumes, styles of binding, prices, dates of various editions, and much else besides. If you inquire for Barnes Newcome's "Lectures on the Poetry of the Affections," he does not spend half an hour in vainly hunting through "The Publishers' Trade List Annual," but he informs you offhand that those lectures were, according to Thackeray, delivered at the Newcome Athenæum, though, unhappily, never published. This clerk can also enlighten you as to the merits and defects of such editions of standard authors as are often on the market. He, of course, remembers that in 1860 there were two issues of the first edition of Hawthorne's "Marble Faun," the second with the additional "Conclusion" occupying four pages. But for your expert this is a mere beginning. He is familiar with the rarities. He can show you

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all the words which were changed in the second edition of "The Scarlet Letter," and the reset printer's imprint on the verso of the title; he can enumerate and distinguish the nine different title-pages of the first edition of "Paradise Lost," and so on through the whole range of English literature—and perhaps one or two foreign literatures as well. He must be versed in prices also; what First Folios and Second Folios of Shakespeare brought at the London auctions ten years ago; what present values are. He must also be acquainted with the stocks of Quaritch and other great dealers; with the offerings at auction; with the contents of the best collections, public and private, here and abroad; and with the tastes of the principal collectors. Many of these facts are duly recorded in works of reference; but in order to use such authorities your expert must bring to them a mass of information of his own, extraordinarily copious and exact.

With this knowledge as a basis, he can, if he possess sufficient tact as a negotiator, build up a legitimate and profitable business as agent and as consultant for either seller or buyer, as the case may be. He learns, for example, that an English duke is forced to dispose of his library containing some Shakespeare quartos. He is also aware that Marsden J. Perry of Providence is the man who wants them; and he may thus very properly act as go-between, give each man sound advice as to the value of the property, and effect a sale. He sees in a catalogue a presentation copy of Lamb's "Tale of Rosamund Gray," and he brings it to the attention of a certain Massachusetts jurist whose hobby is presentation copies from famous authors. He bids at auctions for buyers who prefer to remain unknown, and who trust to his skill and honesty in purchases involving thousands of dollars.

Nor is this book-agent, with all his specialization, deficient in general culture. Indeed, he enjoys unusual and by no means neglected opportunities to cultivate a taste for literature. The collector is often ridiculed as the man who buys but never reads. When Frederick Locker-Lampson, he of the Rowfant Library, protested to Bedford, the famous bookbinder, that a volume did not shut properly, Bedford retorted, "Why, bless me, sir, you've been *reading* it!" Mr. Locker-Lampson is not, we incline to believe, an exception in that he actually had ventured to look into the book. Even in verifying errata and seeing if the misprints accord with the specifications, the collector must do some desultory reading. And the expert on whom the collector relies must, in his wide ranging through the best books, inevitably acquire something more than a mere tincture of literature. He cannot, any more than his brother-in-blood, the connoisseur in art, dwell on mere externals.

THE AIM OF WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

The progress of education has developed the boast that no girl has so little money that she cannot go to college. Scholarships, personal helps of many kinds, and opportunities for self-support open the portals to all those who are ambitious enough and clever enough to enter in. But an even prouder boast is its counterpart, that no girl is so rich that she cannot go to college. A girl born to comfort and ease, who presumably will always be supported from the family funds unless she is supported by a husband, and who has no compelling personal inclination toward some definite form of work, can claim her four years of college life without losing her harmonious connection with her native surroundings. Some people may think her foolish or "queer," but as large a number of equally "nice" people either think her wise or forget to make any remarks whatever. Even in those centres where in more ways than one fashion sets its face against the intellectual, no girl loses caste by choosing to educate herself. She may have to struggle against family prejudices to gain her wish, but she can later return to her old haunts and be received as unquestioningly as if she had never passed the flaming ramparts of her little world. To urge upon girls who do not need to support themselves, or who have no definite careers in view, the desirability of going to college, has grown to be comfortably superfluous. It is with just such girls that many of our colleges are now being filled. Natural and obvious forces will steadily increase the number, until, within another generation or two, the girl who does not go to college will be the exception, about whom will gather those statistical and apologetic explanations with which men seem ever irresistibly impelled to honor our simple and candid sex.

The colleges and the young women of the country no longer ask either our briefs or our prayers. They have found each other out to their mutual satisfaction and contentment. But we ourselves, the outside observers, are still too restless to leave the subject. Our curiosity is still unsated, our approval is still limited or misapplied, and our disapproval still raises an annoying dust from battered straw, or honestly confuses diverse issues.

Some arguments against a college education for girls have grown gray in the service, while the answers to them have more and more assumed the lively shape of patent facts, from the contemplation of which only the wilfully blind are excluded. That college women can be, as they certainly ought to be, well and easily domesticated, any one with eyes may see. But there are arguments for a college education which are too intangible to be called patent facts, and which yet contain the substance of things hoped for in building up a righteous nation. To deal with them is to leave tabulated figures behind us and to open our minds to the freshening consideration of our deepest convictions.

But before making positive statements it may be well to interpolate two negations as a guard against some favorite misunderstandings.

In the first place, in claiming that a college education yields certain large benefits, no one wishes to assert that colleges are the only means by which these advantages may be gained, or to deny the fact that some people who have no college degree are much better educated than some people who have several degrees. The only fair claim is that as education is now planned and as society is now constituted, the easiest and quickest way for a girl of this generation to obtain the best intellectual training and the most effective discipline is to go through a college course.

In the second place, the world in looking on should not expect colleges within their own walled orchards to display all fruits in a complete state of mellow ripeness. We should not deny every benefit of a college education because at times we see students graduated without certain important attributes. The college cannot (nor can any school) in four years make up for all possible deficiencies in inheritance, environment, or home training. Because some college graduates have uncultivated voices or walk awkwardly or dress badly or lack the gentlest manners or fail to respond quickly to all the canons of good taste, many people lose patience with the colleges and say that the education they offer is of no avail. But it is only the home or a large experience in the world (a sorry but possible substitute) which can give the training that results in perfect breeding. Some American girls, rich as often as poor, must rely upon experience rather than upon their homes. But such experience cannot be their full possession at twenty. To blame the colleges for the crudeness of their youth is an obvious injustice.

What a college can accomplish, although of commanding importance, may be put into three very simple paragraphs:

By its curriculum and its instruction, the college stores "young and ductile" minds with important and useful information, and also, which is far better, trains the reasoning power and gives to young girls the princely inheritance of rational and thinking beings. It furthermore quickens their imaginations, cultivates their æsthetic sense, and prepares them to be sensitive to the future influences of a wider and maturer culture.

Again, the college by its varied student life, with its athletic, dramatic, and musical interests, with its delicious pleasures and its finely serious quests, promotes health of body, gayety of spirit, and skill in the use of social powers. Girls with a background find new channels of desirable experience. Girls with none begin to paint in admirable foregrounds—inheritable as backgrounds for the next generation.

And, most important and inclusive of all, the college by the union of its many complex forces gives to young girls large interests and a comprehension of universal rather than personal standards. Whether they marry or not (and the reasons why certain women with and without college degrees do not marry, being the last stronghold of their reserve, are likely to remain impregnable against the beleaguering statistician or the

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raging foe of "higher education"), whether they undertake definite occupations or not, they will become the kind of women who are interesting to their fellow human beings, skilful in meeting the multiform needs of a society staggering under its load of problems, generous and large in all their dealings. The misery of the world comes as much from the petty natures, the limited outlook, the misdirected wills of women as from the vice and selfishness of men. A woman whose centre of thought has been shifted from herself to the universe will probably command beneficent powers throughout her life and do her part toward saving the republic.

In a world where the new problem is still the old one of overcoming evil with good, it is essential that women, for their part, should be wise and self-controlled and charming and cheerful. It is because colleges can help to make them so that we may believe in college education. Such women do not endanger the domestic or the social life of America. Rather will they found admirable homes and purify social standards. In performing these two functions, however secondarily useful other occupations may be, college women do their college training the greatest honor.

In the face of such high possibilities it is extraordinary that some people believe that a college education is useful only as a professional training of women who are obliged to be wage-earners. But perhaps this should be treated as one of those sins of ignorance which, since they are to be winked at, prove such a strain on the charitable eye.

Where charity has no place is in our judgment of the colleges themselves, when they make the equally fatal, if different, mistake of losing sight of the ultimate issues and working toward particular ends. The principle is the same whether the college recognizes self-support as the particular end of some students, or the details of domestic life as the particular end of others. That technical education in separate institutions or in added years may be a desirable supplement to college training, we are not interested in denying. But that the four precious years of "liberal pursuits" should be intruded upon is an educational blunder of the first magnitude. Yet the intrusion is stealthily made. Sweetness and light are unmarketable commodities. Pedagogy, household economics, and other lo heres and lo theres, if we but heed them, will make us "practical." Poetry, they tell us, does not remove the microbes of the pantry, neither does philosophy ventilate a school room. Therefore let literature and metaphysics be abandoned, while good housekeepers and good teachers are evolved.

It is a significant fact that the separate colleges for women raise this cry less persistently than the women's colleges connected with men's universities, or than the coeducational universities. Among men the tendency toward an utilitarian conception of education is obvious. Perhaps they exercise a late revenge in offering the apple of "practical knowledge" to the Eves in their garden.

A more idealistic plea does not disregard the fact that many girls in this vast country will need later to apply their powers to self-support. Neither does it disregard the fact that society must be efficiently served or homes well managed by the women who are to have no technical occupations, but are to be engaged in a work that is without money and without price. It rather seeks to cleave through the pedagogical fallacies that ideas should be applied coincidently with their acquisition, or that second-rate ideas can result in first-rate activities; and to urge the sacred truth that life in whatever form it is handled is greater than an easy matter of methods and of facts. The world itself, for all its clamor, unconsciously demands something better than mechanical equipment, for it gives its largest prizes, whether of position or of favor, to those who possess a personal power that is not the outcome of "practical courses." How much more clearly, then, should colleges see from the mountain peak what is only dimly surmised in the valley!

For women's colleges—the colleges proper as distinguished from the graduate schools—to resolve themselves into technical schools for the turning out of teachers or any other professionals; to become stages whereon in tinsel costume students go through a dress rehearsal of any salaried or unsalaried rôles they may play later in the economic or the domestic drama; to attempt to furnish anything but the "prepotent energy," the glorious impulse of movement toward the next conquest, is to lower themselves to the standards of the market place, and to talk the coarsened language of barter and exchange. The college is not a workshop for the fashioning of drills and derricks. It is rather a hostelry on the highroad where travellers are

Marching to fortune, not surprised by her.

There one has always found good food and inspiriting music, the encouragement of comrades, and imperishable defences against the difficulties of the widening road. May the colleges permit no alien intrusions, for they have in their keeping pearls of great price!

ANNE C. E. ALLINSON.

LITERARY NOTES FROM PARIS.

PARIS, January 29.

"Vanité," the new novel by the brothers Paul and Victor Margueritte, aims to be a human document from a society given over soul and body to money and the satisfactions which money procures. The brothers are not masters of style like Anatole France; that would interfere with the directness of their aim. Nor are they preachers, although they marshal their facts in moral battle array. They tell their story in a rough, swift, matter-of-fact way, sure to interest and impress you, if only you are open-minded. Pierre Brevier, founder and half-owner of the great "department store" of the Quatre Saisons, has a wife and two daughters variously adapted to the flow of his millions. The wife, penniless when he married her, fulfils the whole duty of the rich woman by spending as much money as possible in social ostentation. The elder daughter, Raymonde, owns a husband not too exacting. Alice Brevier, the highly marriageable daughter, is an attempt at realizing an ideal under difficulties. Left to herself as a woman and not a millionaire's daughter, she would marry Michel Lorin, poor relation and struggling doctor, with bar sinister. Pierre Brevier is carried off by angina pectoris after a great dinner, when his partner telephones that he has ruined them both and is committing suicide. This *Krach* of new fortunes is told with a realism due to recent Paris tragedies. Madame Brevier stoops to heritage-hunting from a cynical aunt, who rewards virtue by dying and leaving her new millions. Raymonde feathers her own nest anew by driving her husband to divorce and selling herself to another. Alice, a decided misfit in such a family, marries the poor Michel Lorin—and refuses all inheritance from the new millions left by her mother, who dies before enjoying them. This attitude toward tainted millions is made the occasion for a favorite contrast of these authors between Anglo-Saxon honesty and French honor. Miss Smolett, Alice's English friend, vainly points out what vast sums might be distributed in charity. Alice and Michel will not soil their hands and hearts with the "vanity" of such riches—which must therefore go to Raymonde!

The Société des Conférences, which furnished a hall for the lectures of Brunetière on the Encyclopedists, when the Government excluded him from university buildings, has taken Jules Lemaître this year. He continues—but with mental and moral difference—the general subject with a series of lectures on Jean Jacques Rousseau, documented, up to date in erudition, and full of the sunny philosophy and style of the lecturer. They are doubtless the forerunner of an approaching book of great value.

S. D.

Correspondence.

OPEN SHELVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read, with an ever-increasing desire to take part in it, the correspondence in your paper in regard to the open-shelf system in American libraries. I have hesitated to speak, as my library is in a town of but 25,000 inhabitants, and the circulation of books is but 140,000 a year. As it has, however, one of the largest open-shelf collections, our experience may prove that all American librarians have not yet so definitely owned the system a failure as you seem to think. I am very sorry that the *Nation* should take so pessimistic view of a system which is helping to make public libraries into more effective forces in our towns and cities. While we who have faced the difficulties of free access are trying to convince others that the system (with proper protective measures) is the only enlightened one for a library to adopt in this twentieth century, is it not a pity for you to make our task the harder by saying that we have already acknowledged it a failure?

Since 1899, this library has had its entire collection, which now numbers 65,000 volumes, on open shelves, and the public is so appreciative of its privileges that we should no more think of shutting the doors to them now, than of chaining each book to its place, after the fashion of still earlier days. So important a part of our system do the trustees consider open

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shelves to be that in planning for a new building they have made a large book-room, with alcoves, the central feature of the whole library. With an annual circulation of about 140,000 volumes, we have lost an average of 79 books a year. This figure includes the losses from two deposit stations in stores, where the books are on the most unguarded of open shelves, as well as from the main library. During the year 1906 the total loss of books was 84, of which number 53 were lost from the children's department, 20 from the open shelves in the delivery room and from the deposit stations, and 11 from the main library. These figures would seem to indicate that careful supervision is desirable in children's rooms, but certainly not that the general public has abused the confidence placed in it, nor that the open-shelf system has yet proved itself a failure in this public library.

Mr. Wilson is certainly right in saying that the keenest opponents of the system are those that have not given it a trial. They are perhaps those who are more interested in being able to report at the end of the year "the loss of one volume, subsequently found" than in a measure of usefulness wholly impossible with the old fashion of shelves closed to the public, to whom, after all, the public library really does belong.

LOUISA M. HOOPER.

Public Library, Brookline, Mass., February 11.

THE CASE FOR THE RAILWAYS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Greed is the excess or perversion of the legitimate love of money or wealth. In every bargain there is a dollar which buyer and seller both want, and in general their desire for that dollar, whether legitimate or not, is essentially the same thing, both legally and morally. The all-powerful community of interest between buyer and seller to make the bargain awards fifty cents to each in the grand average of cases. Human freedom means not merely such personal liberty as the social state permits, but includes the inalienable right of free contract, as an essential feature of the institution of property. The greed of the people and their representatives is to-day a menace to our free institutions, which might become more alarming and dangerous than all the trusts in the country, including even the Standard Oil Trust, and the labor Trusts. The greed of the railroads might become as nothing to that of its passengers and shippers, or of the community through which it runs. Railroad service has been steadily improved and cheapened. The legitimate reward for this immense public service should be a great continuous and permanent enhancement in the capital value of the railroad, involving recognition of stockholders' rights to subscribe to new capital on advantageous terms, and the right to earn and pay dividends on the present values, and not upon obsolete par values. This policy would simply put railroads on a parity with other property, and with the country as a whole. The only alternative is the "dead line" of limited dividends and value of stock. If a railroad is strictly limited to 8 per cent. dividends, and is compelled to issue new stock at market value (say $200 per share, as a very high figure to-day), the "dead line" is established; all motive for further development is taken away; stockholders occupy the position of mere mortgagees and naturally seek a lease to guarantee what they have left. This has been the fruit of the unjust, unenlightened policy of Massachusetts. It has cost Massachusetts her backbone, the Boston and Albany Railroad, and $130,000,000 capital (the American Telephone and Telegraph Company) driven out of the State to New York, to say nothing of other losses, large and small.

The truth is that most of our railroads run through seas of watered farms. If every farmer were allowed to earn only 7 per cent. or 8 per cent. on the original or par value of his farm, there would indeed be a saving for the people. Yet it is the railroad which has made the farms worth ten, twenty, or fifty times their par value. If the railroads were destroyed, the country would be little more than a quivering jellyfish. Railroad rates will always be governed by the law of supply and demand, and they have declined thus far. Let us trust in this great natural law of trade, accord to the railroad the justice and freedom accorded to other property, and not stultify ourselves by an exhibition of greed that is worse than what we can accuse even the Standard Oil Company of, after it has reduced the price of oil, say 90 per cent. Let us regulate justly, but not paralyze and destroy.

ROBERT S. MINOT.

Boston, February 8.

Notes.

Messrs. Scribner announce the following: Mrs. Wharton's "Madame de Treymes," with illustrations in color by Alonzo Kimball; "Poison Island," a novel by Quiller-Couch; "The Veiled Lady and Other Men and Women," by F. Hopkinson Smith; "Studies in Pictures," by John C. Van Dyke; "The Peter Pan Alphabet," by Oliver Herford; "Abelard and Héloise," a drama in blank verse by Ridgely Torrence; a new edition of Baedeker's Egypt, and the second and final volume of Dr. Briggs's "Critical and Exegetical Commentary on the Book of Psalms."

Next week the Macmillan Company publishes a story by Owen Wister called "How Doth the Simple Spelling Bee Impruv Each Shining Ower." The same firm announces for February 20 the first volume of the "Cyclopedia of American Agriculture," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey.

Doubleday, Page & Co., who seem to be making a specialty of northern seas, mountains, and all strenuous out-of-door things, will publish this spring Dr. Frederick Cook's "To the Top of the Continent," an account of the scaling of Mt. McKinley.

Next month G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish A. C. Benson's "Beside Still Waters," the reflections and uneventful life of a young man who goes into the country to write.

We note the announcement of several English books which, we believe, are not yet on the list of any New York publisher: "A Literary History of the Arabs," by R. A. Nicholson; "The Story of Port Royal," by Mrs. Romanes, an attempt to show that the Port Royalists from 1601 to 1709 were loyal Catholics; "Life and Flowers," new essays of Maeterlinck translated by A. T. de Mattos; "England and America, 1764 to 1783," by Mrs. Alfred Marks; and "The House of Rest," a novel by the author of "Hazel of Hazeldean."

The Boston Athenæum is about to publish a volume commemorating the one hundredth anniversary of its foundation. It will contain sketches, historical and bibliographical, a complete list of proprietors and officers, and a valuable series of illustrations. From the librarian's annual report we learn that the number of volumes now in the library is 226,489. During the year significant additions have been made to the collection of manuscripts and early editions of the works of New England authors. During the present year a special effort will be made to secure works on Central and South America.

The Honorable Society of Cymmrodorion (64 Chancery Lane, London) asks for subscriptions to the "Lives of the British Saints," by the Rev. S. Baring-Gould and the Rev. John Fisher. This work, to be published in four volumes if sufficient subscribers are obtained, is the result of long study of MS. material in Welsh libraries and elsewhere.

"The Complete Automobile Instructor" (John Wiley & Sons), by Benjamin R. Tillson, is put in the form of six hundred and more questions and answers, covering the principles, the operation, and the care of gasolene automobiles.

The "Records of the Church of Christ at Cambridge in New England, 1632-1830," copied and edited by Stephen Paschall Sharples, will be serviceable to genealogical students. The volume is published by Eben Putnam of Boston.

The six volumes of the Tudor and Stuart Library already issued at the Clarendon Press promise a series of books of unusual value. The reprints are not only literal, but in types actually produced from matrices given to Oxford University by Bishop Fell in 1660. The paper, too, is old-fashioned in that it is made of pure linen rag. The covers, imitation vellum, have at least the virtue of keeping the price of the books at a reasonable figure (5s. net; $1.75 each). Several volumes of the series have already been noticed in these columns, but two new issues deserve special mention. One is Fulke Greville's "Life of Sir Philip Sidney," from the edition of 1652, edited by Nowell Smith; the other is Peacham's "Compleat Gentleman" (from the enlarged edition of 1634), with an Introduction by G. S. Gordon, one of the many works of courtesy published in those years, with, however, a certain originality in the combination of Cavalier and schoolmaster shown by the author. Greville's "Philip Sidney" has been twice before reprinted, once by Sir Egerton Brydges in 1816, and again by the indefatigable but not too careful Dr. A. B. Grosart. The accuracy of the present reprint can be gauged only by those who have at command the original edition of the MS. at Trinity College, but the work bears evidences of care both in the collation of the texts and in the annotations. Of the interest of the work itself, with its heroic picture of Sidney and its general reflections on government, nothing need be said.

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Two useful reprints from the press of Henry Frowde are William Cobbett's "English Grammar" and "Advice to Young Men." The "Grammar," first published ninety years ago, and frequently reissued, remains the most interesting treatise we have on the subject. A few of the usages which Cobbett recommends are now obsolete or obsolescent, but the book as a whole is sound and still worth reading, even by those who regard themselves as experts in grammar. A brief introduction by H. L. Stephen, judge of the high court of Calcutta, supplies whatever is needful in the way of comment on Cobbett's career and on the book itself. The "Advice to Young Men" is still more entertaining. Such didactic works, from Solomon to Senator Beveridge, are as a rule platitudinous and arid. This criticism, however, cannot be passed upon Cobbett's production. The subtitle should be "Illustrated with Numerous Anecdotes of My Own Exemplary Behavior." He is frankly autobiographic, and he displays his colossal egotism with a naïveté that has few parallels in our literature. No one who wishes to understand Cobbett either as a man or a political agitator, can neglect this compendium of advice. Mr. Frowde will, we hope, follow these two books with Cobbett's "Life and Adventures of Peter Porcupine" and "Rural Rides."

From the Cambridge University Press (G. P. Putnam's Sons, American agents) come two beautiful reprints: Bacon's "Essays" and Milton's "Comus and Other Poems." The editions are limited to 250 copies each, of which only 225 are placed on sale in England and America. They are printed from "Cambridge type" — large, clear, and black—on hand-made paper, and the binding is blue boards and parchment back. The "Essays" follow the text of 1625, including spelling, italics, and capitals; and the fragment of an essay "Of Fame," first printed in Rawley's "Resuscitatio," 1657, is added. The poems of Milton are from the texts of 1645 and 1673, and the facsimile of the autograph manuscript of the minor poems. In both volumes the old titles are reproduced.

As an example of useful work in collecting materials for the study of comparative literature, we may mention a monograph on "The Influence of Solomon Gessner Upon English Literature," by Bertha Reed, published by the Americana Germanica Press. Extracts from English criticism of Gessner are given, and also parallel passages from Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Byron. It would appear that Coleridge at least did not hesitate now and then to borrow a line from the German idyllist.

"Some Irish Yesterdays," by E. Œ. Somerville and Martin Ross, illustrated by E. Œ. Somerville, is published in this country by Longmans, Green & Co. The authors of that classic piece of humor, "Some Experiences of an Irish R. M.," have not rested on their laurels. But they have never quite equalled those sketches. Over them one has seen those who know nothing of the life described laugh to the verge of tears, and the initiated follow with resentful admiration the tale of things that their eyes, too, had seen, yet never seen through. "Martin Ross" never indulges in the exaggeration and caricature that alienate the Irish reader from Lever's novels. Lever, after all, was of the town, and country life in Ireland can be understood and revealed only by those who are born and bred on the bog. The Anglo-Irish landowner, who knows it all, but finds more annoyance than amusement in the vagaries of the peasants whom he employs, must smile sometimes with alien lips at these clever portraits of him and his, which, though not quite satire, leave him a little absurd and out of place. Only the Irish can take Ireland with unfailing humor—the unbroken wet, "heavy showers and showers between," the dirt and squalor due to lack of sun, the incalculable that, on all sides, makes routine impossible in Irish life. "Martin Ross" can so depict life in a Galway lodging-house that one feels that not to have shared her experience is to have left one's knowledge of the cities and manners of men lamentably incomplete, and she can so describe a picnic consisting of two men and forty women that, man or woman, one might pine to have been there. This latest volume comes near in fidelity and freshness to the work that brought her fame. She has pushed her record of the west coast as far now as the Aran Islands, and she gives a vivid picture of that isolated community, where men and women alike never put anything on their feet except "pampooties"—slippers of raw cow-hide, with the hair outside—and take to the rocks in panic flight when the rare tourist tries to snatch a photograph or a sketch. For in Aran to be photographed is to die before the year is out. Miss Somerville's illustrations of her cousin's book are, as usual, excellent, full of humor and life, and of the pathos of those ragged coasts and low gray skies.

In "Italian Days and Ways," by Anne Hollingsworth Wharton (J. B. Lippincott Co.), we have another book on Italy written in the form of letters. It combines travel along beaten tracks, personal experience made entertaining by a redeeming, if not a saving, sense of humor, and a background of fiction too dim to distract the reader's attention, but with enough of Italian coloring to add to the general effect of the picture. The three women—one young, the others uncertainly older—who land at Genoa and travel through the highways of Italy *à la* American tourist, have many amusing experiences. They are too obviously *forestieri*, with note-book and Baedeker, not to become the tempting and easily duped prey of astute *vetturini* and unscrupulous boy venders of *grilli*. But the situations, all taken with a good grace and told with a light touch, make diverting reading. There is a tendency to enlarge upon trifling incidents, which produces the effect of padding; but the spirit of enthusiastic enjoyment gives a fresh view to old scenes. The letters from Rome during Easter week, and the description of the Gregorian ceremonial, are the most interesting of the volume.

In "Rome as Described by Great Writers," edited by Esther Singleton (Dodd, Mead & Co.), the preface avers that the purpose of the volume, as of others in the same series, "is to give the traveller or stay-at-home reader a general and comprehensive view of the great cities of the world." Except for Gibbon, Dickens, Hawthorne, and Zola, and a few others who, like F. Marion Crawford, are at least popular, the writers who are laid under contribution cannot be called great. Dickens's spirited descriptions, especially of the Carnival as it was once but is no longer, were well worth quoting, and are by all odds the most interesting reading in the whole book. Nor will Mr. Crawford's competence to write a chapter on Roman Life and Character be questioned. But although no one will deny that Hawthorne was a great writer, it is only an enemy of his fame who will wittingly propagate the nonsense he wrote about Italian art. Unfortunately the text is carelessly handled and misstatements in the writers quoted are allowed to go uncorrected. At page 300, for example, Hawthorne and his wife are made to perform a remarkable feat. They started out at about nine o'clock in the evening to see Rome by moonlight, and after a description of the Colosseum and the Fountain of Trevi, the following paragraph proceeds: "We next ascended an amazing height of staircases, and walked along I don't know what extent of passages till we reached the picture gallery of the Vatican." Staircases and passages which should lead from the Trevi Fountain to the Vatican must needs be extensive, since they would have to traverse a good half of Rome. Consulting the "French and Italian Notebooks," we find that our editor has combined without asterisks two extracts from the article dated April 25, 1858, which are separated by three pages in the original text. At page 319 Dr. Reinhold Schoener transports the Villa Mattei from the Cælian to the slopes of the Pincian Hill; and a number of similar errors might be noted were there space for such corrections. The proof-reading, too, is inexcusably careless. We cite three instances by way of illustration: Anio Vestus for Anio Vetus, p. 16; Rospighosi for Rospigliosi, p. 43; and S. Maria Vallicella for S. Maria della navicella, p. 320. The book is not a credit either to editor or publisher.

D. H. Macgregor's "Industrial Combination" (The Macmillan Co.) is probably the most careful scientific study which has yet been made in this field of investigation. Its most valuable part is the first four chapters, which deal with "the factors of competing strength." These factors, according to Mr. Macgregor, are productive efficiency, risk, bargaining strength, and resource. Avoiding all confusion between the phenomena of industrial concentration and those of large-scale production, he investigates the influence of combination upon the competing strength of "representative firms." Subsequent chapters deal with the conditions which occasion combination, the relation of aggregations of capital to aggregations of labor, the "national effects" of the combination movement, and the public policy which should be pursued with reference thereto. Mr. Macgregor's conclusions are generally as sane as his methods of procedure are correct. The chief, if not the only, ground for criticism is his disposition to take too seriously "official" material dealing with the Trust movement in the United States. Thus the preposterous answers concerning export prices which the Industrial Commission gathered from protected manufacturers are solemnly cited (p. 211) as scientific evidence that most of the Trusts

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do not look with great favor upon the policy of selling to foreigners at lower prices than are charged domestic consumers. This is, however, a common failing with European students, who accept with childlike simplicity anything labelled "official," and have been victimized wholesale by the outgivings of the Industrial Commission.

"International Law, with Illustrative Cases" (F. H. Thomas Law Book Co.), by Prof. Edwin Maxey of the University of West Virginia, is a book of which we cannot imagine the use. Its chief merit is asserted to be that it combines a treatise with a collection of cases, but as the treatise and the collection are equally poor, their alliance profits nothing. The choicest specimen of the author's style is this comment on the Panama incident (p. 53):

Viewed in the light of Colombia's past indifference towards the welfare of the Isthmian provinces, it seems entirely natural that . . . . the people of the Isthmus should have done exactly what they did, viz., dissolve the political bond which kept them from rendering the service and reaping the benefit which God and nature intended they should. . . . Not to have manifested a determination that their great natural resources due to their situation be used to their own and the benefit of mankind; rather than senselessly wasted, would have been unmistakable evidence of an imperative need for the appointment of a commission of lunacy.

After this, nothing can surprise us, not even the entire omission—except in the case of the North Sea convention—of all controversies growing out of the Russo-Japanese war. On the whole, the work is inaccurate and ill-digested.

In "Roman Private Law" (The Macmillan Co.) R. W. Leage merely aims "to give as simply as possible the subject matter of the Institutes of Gaius and Justinian." This he does, not by translating or commenting on the original texts, but by describing clearly and concisely the substance of the law revealed to us by those texts. The historical point of view is omitted, except so far as it is necessarily involved in recording the fact (*e. g.*) that the forms of execution in use under the Antonines were different from those employed under Justinian. The work is admirably done, and should prove useful, not only to elementary students, but to any one who wishes to be saved the trouble of referring to the original Institutes. Why the Roman technical terms, which to our mind look best in italics, should be printed partly thus and partly in ordinary type, is a mystery that we have not solved.

"The Army in 1906: A Policy and a Vindication," by H. O. Arnold-Forster, M.P. (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is avowedly a defence of his administration of the British War Office, which ended early in 1906 with the coming in of the Campbell-Bannerman Ministry, and he is happy to quote on the title-page of his book from a speech made by his successor, Mr. Haldane, in July, 1906:

Never before this time have we had such good material in the Army. The morale both of officers and men is higher than it was. The Army is in a condition in which I do not think it has been before, both in point of quantity and quality.

But while ready to cite Mr. Haldane in his defence, Mr. Arnold-Forster is bent also on proving that Mr. Haldane's own policy is all wrong, since in Mr. Arnold-Forster's opinion it weakens the army, makes it less efficient, does not provide for its expansion in time of war, adds to the cost, and finally "destroys the good and retains the bad." Public opinion is not with Mr. Arnold-Forster; hence perhaps this excellently printed and well-got-up book, the value of which is further enhanced by the summaries of the points made, printed at the end of each chapter. There are not many Americans who have been able to follow the kaleidoscopic changes in the process of reforming the British Army which have taken place every six months or so since the Boer war. But those civilians and military men who are endeavoring to study the various schemes should not fail to add Mr. Arnold-Forster's book to their libraries—special pleading though it be for a régime and policy of the past.

"The Life of Sir George Williams," founder of the Young Men's Christian Association, by J. E. Hodder Williams (A. C. Armstrong & Son), is the story of a career which began in a lonely farmhouse in the Lorna Doone country and ended in St. Paul's Cathedral. Born in 1821, he came to London when twenty years old, and secured a position in a draper's shop at $4 a week. The condition of shopmen in those days was "little removed from that of a slave." During the busiest part of the year it was a common thing for these young men to be penned in the unhealthy atmosphere of the shop from six or seven in the morning until ten or eleven at night. Under the prevailing "living-in" system they were housed together, five or six in a single room. The moral and physical welfare of the young men was contemptuously ignored by employers. An overwhelming desire to help his associates was awakened in the country lad at the outset of his London life, and actuated him to its close, sixty-four years later. A little devotional gathering in his bedroom led to the formation of the Young Men's Christian Association; and to the untiring and eminently judicious labors of Sir George more than to those of any other man is due the fact that the original band of twelve drapers' assistants has grown into an international body of 7,773 associations, with 722,000 members, and owning buildings valued at $34,000,000. The larger part of the memoir is naturally devoted to an account of his work as a philanthropist. But his remarkable success in this direction was not "the crowning wonder" of his life, according to his biographer, and the readers of the life-story will agree with him. It was the fact that he was a thorough business man from the beginning, and was for many years at the head of a great establishment, "keeping in constant touch with every detail, watching every turn and trend of one of the most complicated and exacting of trades." He demonstrated the truth of his own conviction that "the men of God, other things—natural ability and education and knowledge—being equal, are the best men of business." It was to this unique combination of ardent love for evangelistic and philanthropic work with devotion to business that he owed the honors conferred upon him, knighthood, the freedom of the city, and a tomb in St. Paul's. The illustrations are ten portraits of Sir George and several of the original members of the Young Men's Christian Association, and pictures of places referred to in the memoir.

Mark Twain's "Christian Science, with Notes Containing Corrections to Date," just issued by Harper & Brothers, is distinctly disappointing. It contains a good picture of Mr. Clemens, taken last year, pictures of two Christian Science churches, and some passages of caustic humor, but as an exposition or exposure of Christian Science and its fallacies or of Mrs. Eddy's ecclesiastical polity, it does not get anywhere. It is perhaps most successful in laying bare the elaborate system by which Mrs. Eddy centres in her own hands all the powers of the organization. We do not labor under the delusion that people who are persuaded by Mrs. Eddy's style of writing will be in the least moved by an array of evidence or by logical inference. Webster himself could not construct an argument that would make the slightest impression on the average Christian Scientist. But, granting all this, we see no reason for putting on the market such a deal of skimble-skamble stuff as is here bundled together. The book is without beginning, middle, or end; it is extremely repetitious. It cannot be regarded as either a serious or a humorous contribution to the discussion.

Students of theology may remember the suggestive Ely lectures on "The Evidence of Christian Experience" delivered some fifteen years ago by Lewis French Stearns, then professor at Bangor Theological Seminary and since deceased. One is reminded of Professor Stearns's essay by the recently published "Realities of Christian Theology," by Clarence Augustine Beckwith, who was also professor at Bangor and is now connected with the Chicago Theological Seminary (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Professor Beckwith endeavors to reach the realities of religious doctrine through experience, and the sub-title of his work is "An Interpretation of Christian Experience." The method proposed is to proceed from the life recognized as Christian, which is assumed to be the same in all ages, to the truths to which the life bears witness. In the work itself, however, this method is often lost sight of, and the realities which come to view are not particularly substantial or veritable. The principal themes of the usual doctrinal systems appear in the discussion, but it can hardly be said that new light is thrown upon them.

The Theological Translation Library, which has done so much to extend the knowledge of the best German criticism among English readers, now reaches its twenty-second volume in a translation of the first part of Dr. Otto Pfleiderer's "Urchristentum" (Primitive Christianity: its Writings and Teachings in their Historical Connections. Translated by W. Montgomery. Vol. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons). It is strange that a work of such recognized value on the beginnings of Christianity should not have been made accessible in English more promptly. The scholarship and ability of the author have long been conceded, in England and America as well as on the Continent. His wide studies in the field of comparative religion give him peculiar advantage as a writer on the New Testament. The discussion of the writings and theology of Paul occupy the larger part of the present volume, and the completion of the translation may be awaited with interest.

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An entirely new literary find, a work of Irenæus, who died in the last decade of the second century, has just been published under the care of Professor Adolf Harnack. Some months ago, it was reported that an Armenian translation of the Greek work of Irenæus, quoted by Eusebeus as εἰς ἐπίδειξιν τοῦ ἀποστολικοῦ κηρύγματος, and generally known as the "Apostolic Proclamation," had been discovered, and that an edition would be forthcoming. This now appears as Heft. I of the first volume of the third series of the "Texte und Untersuchungen," edited by A. Harnack and C. Schmidt (Leipzig: Hinrichs). The Armenian text was discovered, edited, and translated into German by the two Armenian scholars, Dr. Karapet Ter-Mekertishan and Lic. Dr. Erwand Ter-Minassiantz, the text and translation being revised by Dr. Franz Finck, a *privat-docent* of the Berlin University, while the Introduction and the Notes are the work of Harnack. The manuscript was found in the Mother of God Church in Eriwán, and dates from the second half of the thirteenth century. There seems to be no doubt that the work is genuine, especially as the author quotes in chapter 99 his famous work against heresies as a production of his own pen. The book, conveniently divided by Harnack into one hundred chapters, does not possess the sensational novelty of the Didache and the Apocryphal Gospel of Peter, but it is of exceptional value, as the editor declares, for study of the Church's faith at the time it was written. It is an exposition of the orthodox doctrine as expounded by the Bishop of Lyons, and is intended for a certain Marcian, who was evidently a layman. Its chief value will consist in the data it furnishes for the development of Christian doctrine at a time when the great theological and Christological controversies were in preparation.

At a sale held by Knight, Frank & Rutley of London, January 24, the 1481 edition of Dante's "Commedia," with Landino's commentary, brought £19; and Gower's "Confessio Amantis," 1632, £13.

Henry Francis Pelham, president of Trinity College, Oxford, England, since 1897, died on Tuesday at the age of sixty-one. He was educated at Harrow and Trinity; and soon after taking his degree he became a tutor in Exeter College. In 1889 he was appointed Camden professor of ancient history in the University of Oxford, and in 1892 curator of the Bodleian Library. Among his publications are "Outlines of Roman History," 1890; "The Imperial Domains and the Colonate," 1890; "The Roman Frontier System," 1895; and numerous articles in the "Encyclopædia Britannica" and Smith's "Dictionary of Antiquities."

Sir William Howard Russell, the noted war correspondent, died in London last Sunday. He was born near Dublin in 1821, studied at Trinity College, married a daughter of Peter Burrowes in 1846, and was called to the English bar from the Middle Temple in 1850. During O'Connell's agitation for the Repeal of the Union, the London *Times*, for which he had written occasionally, engaged him to describe the great mass-meetings, and this he did so effectively that soon afterward he was offered a permanent engagement on the staff. His first foreign service was in Schleswig-Holstein in 1850. In 1854 he was sent to Malta with the advance guard of the British Expedition to the East, on the declaration of war with Russia. From Malta he proceeded in due course to Bulgaria and the Crimea, where he remained till the evacuation of the Chersonese by the Allied Army in 1856. In 1857 he reported the campaign of the Indian mutiny. In 1858 he established the *Army and Navy Gazette*, of which thereafter he remained the chief proprietor and editor. On the outbreak of civil war in the United States, in 1861, he made a tour of the South. In course of time he joined McDowell's army, and described the battle of Bull Run in a spirit so hostile to the Northern army as to gain for himself much unenviable notoriety, and the title of "Bull Run Russell," which clung to him ever after. In 1866 he reported the war between Austria and Prussia; and he was again to the front during the Franco-Prussian war. When the Great Eastern laid the first Atlantic cable, in 1866, he was a member of the expedition, and he attended the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869. In 1875 he accompanied the then Prince of Wales to India, after which he was once more summoned to the field, this time with Lord Wolseley in the Zulu expedition. Later he accompanied the same general in the campaign which led to the occupation of Egypt and the reëstablishment of the Khedive at Cairo. He received his knighthood in 1895. As a writer he was master of a style which was at once fluent, forcible, and picturesque, and he generally manifested an astonishing grasp of all the vital details of his subject. Among his voluminous publications are "Letters from the Crimea," "Diary in India," "My Diary North and South," "Rifle Clubs and Volunteer Corps," "Canada: Its Defences," "My Diary in the East."

The Right Hon. George Joachim Goschen (Viscount Goschen) died February 7. He was born in 1831, and had a distinguished public career. He was chancellor of the exchequer in Lord Salisbury's second Administration, and afterwards was first lord of admiralty. He had been lord rector of Edinburgh and Aberdeen Universities, and had written much on economics and finance. Among his publications are: "The Theory of the Foreign Exchange," and "Essays and Addresses on Economic Questions."

BRUMMAGEM ECONOMICS.

The Wheel of Wealth, being a Reconstruction of the Science and Art of Political Economy on the Lines of Modern Evolution. By John Beattie Crozier. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $4.60.

Some years ago Mr. Crozier discovered a "New Organon," by the aid of which he undertook to "reconstruct" the sum total of human knowledge. From the comprehensive, though modest, character of his enterprise it was evident from the very start that, unless some more ambitious project claimed his attention, he would sooner or later fall foul of political economy. The first volume of the "History of Intellectual Development," indeed, got no further than the reconstruction of the wit and wisdom of the Hindus, Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, and early Church Fathers; and it seemed that the "dismal science" was safe for a number of years to come. But when, leaping over the intervening time and space, the next volume reconstructed "the politics of England, France, and America for the twentieth century," it became clear that Mr. Crozier was about to close with the pretended science of Smith, Ricardo, and Mill—not to mention the other impostors.

The reconstruction of political economy has long been a favorite pastime with amateurs, but there is nothing amateurish about the "Wheel of Wealth." Its author is an experienced reconstructor, and from start to finish his policy is "Thorough." He reconstructs political economy more comprehensively and pitilessly than we should have considered humanly possible—reconstructs it, science and art, root and branch, body and soul; production, exchange, distribution, consumption, and public finance. When the task is completed, the most abject devotee of the accursed science would never recognize the object of his devotions. Moreover, the work is done expeditiously, and as a mere incident in the larger task of rewriting the whole circle of sciences dealing with human life, "Religion, Government, Philosophy, Psychology, Ethics, History," and the rest. All alike are pronounced unreliable because they have not yet found common support in a general science of civilization by which they would be "coördinated and reduced to harmony." Hegel, Comte, Buckle, and Spencer have, indeed, appreciated the need of such a comprehensive social philosophy; but their efforts to supply it failed because each of them emphasized unduly one or another of the factors in the problem. In his "Civilization and Progress" Mr. Crozier has already found the key to the riddle. The progressive development of higher moral codes and ideals is the fundamental principle needed to unify the sciences that deal with man; and political economy, like the others, stands condemned because it has not reconstructed itself upon "the lines of Modern Evolution."

A true system of political economy, according to Mr. Crozier, ought to be "first, a pure science; secondly, an art, or applied science, and, thirdly, a polity; the pure science being the inner core of the doctrine, as it were, while the art and the polity form the general material, political, and social framework in which it is embodied, and in and through which it has to work." The pure science of political economy should explain and interpret not merely the economics of modern capitalism, but also the economics of every other stage of industrial development; and our author maintains that the orthodox school, by narrowing its investigations to the stage of modern capitalism, has made the science "an illegitimate academic specialism."

Such a pure science Mr. Crozier develops in a single chapter which is all of six pages in length, the transformation being wrought by his miraculous Wheel of Wealth. All the factors involved in industrial processes are four in number: production, consumption, the powers of nature, and the powers of man. Production is constantly passing into consumption, and consumption, in turn, into production; so that any one can see that the two combined form a revolving Wheel, of which production constitutes one-half and consumption the other. This Wheel revolves "along the highway of time,"

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through a medium "thick with powers of nature of all kinds," and with the "powers of man" ever hovering near to give the needed push. In a late chapter we learn that bankers and speculators, all the while, manage to stand on the "centre or axle," watching, like Helen's Babies, to see the Wheel go round. From this conception, Mr. Crozier passes to the two "fundamental propositions mathematically deducible" from it. In the first place, he shows that any check applied to one-half of the Wheel inevitably retards the progress of the other. He fails, however, to notice what the consequences of such a jolt must be to the bankers or speculators who have been endeavoring to preserve their balance upon the axle, and thereby loses an admirable opportunity to elaborate a new theory of commercial panics. The second fundamental proposition is that, "just as the distance covered by a running wheel in a given time is in proportion to the speed of its revolutions, so in the Wheel of wealth-production, the increase of wealth is also in proportion to the speed of its revolutions in a given time." If these discoveries do not make the "academic specialialists" betake themselves to the tall timber as speedily as possible, we shall know that the impostors are as devoid of shame as they are of scientific insight.

As many as eight chapters are needed to reconstruct the applied science of political economy, but the work is accomplished within the moderate compass of eighty pages. The chief discovery in this field is not thrown off by the Wheel of Wealth, but is borrowed almost bodily from Robertson's "Fallacy of Saving." It seems that of the two parts of the Wheel the motive power always comes from consumption, which at every point controls and limits production. The increase of production depends, then, upon consumption, not upon the growth of capital, as Mill and other miscreants affirmed; and "saving," by limiting consumption, tends, so far forth, to check production (p. 92). It is consumption, therefore, that makes the Wheel go; and rents, profits, and wages rise or fall together, according as the revolutions are accelerated or retarded.

Having constructed, or rather reconstructed, his pure and applied sciences, Mr. Crozier sets off in quest of his polity. As our readers may have begun to suspect, this is "Tariff Reform" of the Chamberlain variety. Foreign exchanges, to be beneficial, must be in "complementary," not in competing, goods; since the importation of the latter destroys domestic industries, and, if unrestrained, will strip weaker countries of their population and wealth. Such, he gravely informs his readers, has been the effect of free trade between the various States of the American Union; and such, he predicts, will be the fate of Great Britain if she does not throw herself into the arms of the Birmingham screw-maker. The classical doctrine of comparative cost arouses him to the highest pitch of frenzied verbosity, and the theory that gold exports tend automatically to regulate themselves he ridicules as a "perpetual-motion scheme." Protectionism, therefore, is the only polity for nations living in the twentieth century.

The reader may have begun to wonder why such a reconstruction of political economy should have been called reconstruction "on the lines of modern evolution." The Wheel of Wealth would seem to be a mechanical rather than a biological conception, and the reversion to protectionism suggests not evolution, but atavism. But two-thirds through his volume our author suddenly recalls that he is writing "from the standpoint of evolution," and undertakes to make performance square with profession. The matter is simple enough, after all:

> If there is one thing more certain than another in the general ground-plan on which the world is constructed, it is the determination that each race of creatures, as well as the different races of mankind, shall be protected in its own individuality by all the exclusive agencies in the armory of Nature—sexual selection, physiological selection, prepotency, mental, physical, and sentimental repulsion and affinities, national and racial self-centredness.

Social and economic evolution, therefore, must proceed upon the line of national exclusiveness; Chamberlainism is clearly seen to accord with fundamental cosmic law; and political economy cannot be reconstructed upon evolutionary principles until thoroughly imbued with the gospel of protectionism. From Manchester, then, we must turn to Birmingham if we would place our science upon a modern evolutionary basis; and the antediluvian doctrines of the Manchester school must be finally abandoned for up-to-date Brummagem economics.

In a work which reconstructs an entire science at a single stroke, it is an ungrateful task to call attention to such minor defects as errors of fact and inference; and in a single number of the *Nation* it would be impossible to chronicle more than a small part of Mr. Crozier's mistakes. His assertion that free trade between the States of the American Union has drained entire sections of their industries, population, and wealth, is a fair example of his regard for economic facts; and his allusion to Boehm-Bawerk as the "pupil" (p. 394) and "disciple" (p. 425) of Jevons—of Menger he seems never to have heard—is sufficiently indicative of his acquaintance with economic literature. But, after all, what would you have of your universal philosopher? Why not leave facts to the grovelling specialist, and allow your philosopher to philosophize—with facts, if possible, but without them when necessary? That, at any rate, is the opinion of the reviewer; and over Mr. Crozier's various mistakes he has no desire to make merry for the edification of the groundlings. In conclusion, it is only fair to say that the "Wheel of Wealth," like the author's preceding works, is entertainingly written, and is an interesting, if not successful, addition to the books that have undertaken to reform the unregenerate science of political economy.

STUDIES IN HISTORY.

Parties and Slavery, 1850-1859. By Theodore Clarke Smith. [The American Nation, Vol. XVIII.]. New York: Harper & Bros. $2 net.

With the present volume the "American Nation" enters the period already covered by the monumental work of James Ford Rhodes. Taken as a whole, Professor Smith's volume stands the comparison very well, notwithstanding some fundamental differences in method and spirit. Mr. Rhodes's work is preëminent for its breadth of view, its leisureliness, and its sympathetic appreciation of contemporary tone and feeling. Professor Smith, on the other hand, covering in one small volume a period to which Mr. Rhodes devotes parts of three large ones, moves rapidly, sketches his outlines with a few bold strokes, chooses only indispensable incidents, and eschews reflection. The material used by both writers is the same, though Professor Smith has made some independent use of newspapers, particularly those of the central west.

Since the facts presented are for the most part familiar, criticism must concern itself principally with the selection of topics and the general handling. As the title indicates, the volume has for its main subject the history of party politics and slavery in the decade following 1850. It is with the national aspect of both these topics that Professor Smith chiefly concerns himself, the course of State politics receiving only incidental notice. Such matters, for example, as the development of party machinery in the North and the lack of bosses in the South; the action of State nominating conventions and the results of State elections; the growth of cities in the North and West; the political attitude of the non-slaveholding class in the planter States; and the political sympathies of the new foreign population are elements of political growth of which Professor Smith does not, perhaps from lack of space, take much account. As a whole, his narrative leaves little to be desired, but the predominant attention to national affairs is, we think, a defect of some importance, especially as regards the South, where politics formed an appreciably larger part of life than in the North or West, and where State independence and personal leadership afforded a basis for national party allegiance somewhat different from that elsewhere. To deal intelligently, in moderate compass, with State politics is obviously difficult, and Professor Smith is not a sinner in this respect above his fellows; but the growth of political opinion within State lines needs more attention from the historian who would explain the why as well as the what of political action.

It is in Professor Smith's treatment of the Kansas episode, however, that we find most to complain of. So far as choice of incident goes, to be sure, as well as in the coördination of the subject with the general course of the period, there is admirable balance; but in sympathy, in fundamental appreciation of a social point of view, the narrative is weak where that of Mr. Rhodes is strong. One gets from Professor Smith's condensed pages hardly more than an interesting intimation of the actual influences at work in Kansas, of the attitude of leaders and factions, or of the intense and almost savage conviction with which the Free State men fought against their proslavery antagonists. John Brown and the Pottawatomie massacre are dismissed in ten lines, the struggle between Robinson and Lane in twenty. Here, again, attention to national interests has led to neglect of one of the most interesting political struggles in our history.

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On the other hand, the chapter on "Social Ferment in the North," with its skilfully compressed story of social changes, philanthropic and reform movements, and literary development, is a welcome feature in a series which thus far has dealt but scantily with economic or social history. For the rest, we are given an adequate survey of the diplomatic events of the decade, and informing chapters on the growth of railroads and the panic of 1857. The readableness of Professor Smith's pages merits particular commendation.

Mémoires et documents publiés par la Société de l'École des Chartes. Vol. VI. Essai sur les Sources de l'Histoire des Antilles Françaises (1492-1664). Par Jacques de Dampierre. Paris: A. Picard et fils.

Bibliography, instead of being the servant at the portal to historical knowledge, has in many American institutions threatened to turn out of doors those who believe that their real quest is the meaning of events. It is so much easier to list old titles than to concoct a new one, to turn pages than to read what is on them, to summarize an author's views than to decide whether his opinions are right or wrong, that many an overworked pedagogue has inevitably drifted with his pupils into the doldrums of "bibliographical preparation." The search for other men's notions leads to many an interesting goal, but it is not history. The École des Chartes performed a service of great importance to all who concern themselves with methods of historical investigation, when it set one of its students to work on a subject of modern times. The danger of such an experiment was great, for it would have been natural if the results had exhibited the worst faults of the unintelligent desire for exhaustiveness. The unequalled traditions of the École des Chartes, with its close and detailed study of every scrap of available material, and with its long practice with the scanty remains of the period for the accurate understanding of whose events it may be necessary to consider deliberately the nature of an ink spot or the character of the surface of a sheet of parchment—this kind of research calls for thoroughness first of all; whereas those who are concerned with the altered conditions brought about by the printing press must be prepared to guess at the truth concealed in each parcel of partisan misstatements. Opposed as are the standards and the methods of the workers in these two fields, each has much to teach the other. To bring them together is the task upon which the École des Chartes has embarked.

M. Dampierre, to whom was assigned the initial experiment, chose for his subject the French Antilles from 1492 to 1664. His book is likely to be of much value to students of the West Indies, but its usefulness will be far greater as an object lesson in the proper method of approaching and handling the complex masses of material which confront the student of modern history. It makes no pretence of being a "guide," and it does not tell the investigator how to go to work. It even takes for granted on the part of the reader a certain amount of common sense, as well as of training. It is merely an illustration of how to deal with books and manuscripts, so as to get at their real contents, and sift out what is valuable or useful.

The thing that first impresses an American student in working with M. Dampierre's book is the inevitable difficulty which a student in one country has in finding out what his fellow-workers elsewhere have been doing. The volume is full of blunders and omissions which would mark a worker in an American library as the most careless of beginners. In the Bibliothèque Nationale, however, it is quite possible that the cataloguers have done little with the voyages of Thévenot since the days of Camus. The fathering of Goldsmid's bastard edition of Hakluyt's "Voyages" upon the Hakluyt Society, in the introductory pages, makes one skeptical almost to the point of refusing to go further with such a gossiping guide. In almost every section there are statements whose bibliographical inaccuracy could be proved in any one of a half-dozen American libraries. But he who undertook the proving would be very likely to miss the much more important fact that M. Dampierre, after doing the best he could with the material available at the Bibliothèque Nationale, looked into the books and manuscripts with which he was dealing. He established their position as sources for information regarding the French West Indies. He does not pretend to be an authority on the history of the Antilles, but he has been trained to get at what is in a book. He identifies the authors of anonymous accounts, locates the elements of prejudice or partisanship, and picks out the necessary precipitant to separate fact from imagination; he suggests the effect of literary style on truthfulness, he sifts out what has been appropriated from the residuum of personal information. The student who has made this sort of preliminary study, is ready to go on with the preparation of a contribution to real history.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Kinsman. By Mrs. Alfred Sidgwick. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This is an amusing and well-sustained bit of comedy, which we fancy might be easily convertible into a taking play. It is, to be sure, no more than another pleasant variation upon the ancient theme of the Two Dromios; this time the action turns upon the sudden meeting of two long-lost second cousins, and the confusion resulting from their temporary exchange of property, and from other circumstances. Their brother-grandsires were, we learn, of gentle birth, though both younger sons, and, therefore, compelled to shift for themselves. One goes to Australia, makes his fortune, marries property, and naturally has a gentleman for his grandson. The other becomes a London tradesman, marries an 'Arriet, prospers ill, and inevitably has an 'Arry for *his* grandson. Equally in the nature of things these two look exactly alike—or as much alike as a gentleman and a cad are permitted by the laws of fiction. It remains to bring them together in the wild spot where once stood their ancestral halls. How they come to change places, and what complications ensue, constitute the game, and we may not fairly spy upon the author's hand.

If some of the cards are marked, the fact is as evident to us as to her. Here, for example, appears that familiar fraud, the English country gentleman, whose only fault is a determination to sacrifice his beloved daughter in marriage to a cad who happens to be heir by the law of entail. Most useful of all laws to the novel-writing Briton, what parallel asset has the scribbling American to boast? Each high-bred incumbent is determined that his grandson at least shall inherit the broad acres. It is a daughter's duty, since she did not see fit to be a son, to wed whatever casual heir may be provided by fate and the English Constitution. There are, of course, the highest precedents for this kind of thing, and we do not mean to look too solemnly at our comedy-writer because she makes somewhat broad use of her privilege. It is an innocent game, by which nobody really loses anything. "The Kinsman" is just conventional enough, foolish enough, pleasant enough, to be an excellent thing of its kind.

The Lone Furrow. By W. A. Fraser. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The writer, well known for his Indian tales, here presents a rather long-drawn-out sketch of life in a Scotch-Canadian village of Ontario. With its leisureliness, its element of mystery (in the vulgar sense), and its prevailing atmosphere of religious inquiry, it recalls some of the later stories of George Macdonald. It is not a story that irresistibly made itself. The people in it are rather types than persons, and it contains no really continuous action. Indeed, it is hardly more than a vigorous statement of an interesting situation, followed by a prolonged and rambling commentary upon that situation.

The "meenister" of the local church has passed his earliest years of endeavor in India. Of naturally frail physique, he has had recourse to opium at a moment of great stress. Later, he has removed to a Canadian parish, where his liberality of creed and strictness of principle have got him into difficulties with his hard-praying, hard-drinking parishioners. At the beginning of the story the minister has suddenly and inexplicably disappeared, leaving not only his parish, but his young wife, who is for the first time pregnant. There is suspicion of foul play, involving the village ne'er-do-weel, brother of the bereaved wife. This suspicion is falsified in the event: the scapegrace is reclaimed (after being nearly burned to death), the minister is found and brought home in time to hear the cry of his first-born. He has succumbed to his old enemy, and presently makes a permanent disappearance. Such a theme has possibilities enough, but it should not remain a theme. Nobody could pretend to prescribe an exact ratio of dialogue, narrative, and description, in treating such a topic; but here it is unfortunately clear that the talk's the thing. Consequently, the novelist fails to hold the attention which he has successfully engaged in the opening chapters. Even the Ancient Mariner proceeded to the point in time.

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Pathological Aspects of Religions. By Josiah Moses. Worcester, Mass.: Clark University Press.

This volume (a doctor's dissertation) is the first of a series of monograph supplements to the *American Journal of Religious Psychology and Education*, to be issued by Clark University, contributions to the branch of psychological science to the study of which President G. Stanley Hall has given so decided an impetus. The author treats his subject under the three heads of the emotional element (love, hate, anger, fear, mysticism, symbolism, fetishism, interpretation); the intellectual element (opposition to science, skepticism); and the volitional element in religion (fanaticism, asceticism). Under each of these heads he cites numerous examples of abnormal experiences, beliefs, and procedures, and offers explanations of these phenomena. Love he regards as an "efflorescence of the sexual impulse" (p. 15, where the etymologies adopted were better omitted); mysticism he defines (pp. 125 ff.) as a kind of psychical rapture, in which the subject's self-consciousness melts into cosmic consciousness—an emotion akin to love, the love being sometimes Platonic, most frequently sensuous; abnormal beliefs, he holds, are largely irrational survivals of early crude views (ch. v.); adopting Prof. William James's analysis, he refers fanaticism to the instinct of self-preservation (p. 218), and asceticism (p. 233 ff.) to disgust with the world or fear of it. His collection of pathological phenomena is impressive, but his choice is not always discriminating. He gives great space to the crudities of Jewish and patristic Biblical interpretation, especially to the minute discussions and the vagaries of the Talmud. But a part of these discussions are simply legal—careful definitions of law such as are made every day in our courts of law; the absurd explanations of words are mostly academic devices for emphasizing principles; the allegorizing is partly an inheritance from the Greek critics of Alexandria, partly the result of the desire to bring out all the contents of an infallible text. To call such things pathological is to give a new sense to the term, to make it cover a history of errors of thought; it might include the author's opinion (with all due respect to him be it said) that Christianity very likely owes its birth to the degeneration of Judaism (p. 168).

For a proper estimate of crude beliefs and practices, Dr. Moses lays down the excellent canon (p. 66) that when they are congruous with the stage of development of a community they should not be called superstitions, and that they cannot be considered pathological unless they injure the mental, moral, and physical health of their adherents; only, this last clause must be interpreted cautiously, since anything wrong may be held to injure health, and not everything that injures health can be called pathological in the ordinary sense of that word. He seems, however, not to be faithful to his canon; in chapter two he treats as pathological Old Testament examples of human sacrifice, and certain late phallic observances, without perceiving that the practices in question are quite in accordance with the moral and intellectual plane of the communities in which they are found (p. 25 ff.). It is true that there were shameful practices in the religious customs of the civilized Greeks and Romans, but these, unfortunately, were far from being abnormal. Of certain savage licentious ceremonies Dr. Moses observes (p. 29) that they are engaged in by pure-minded men and women; that is, they are morally low, but the observance of them is based on reasoning that is normal and sane for the people concerned. The same thing is true of the rite of prelibation; this and some similar customs have come down from old tribal usages that were once a part of the civil organization and continue to be respected as ancient law. The cult of the phallus arose from the veneration felt for the mystery of generation—a bit of normal savage logic—and where it exists to-day it is ordinarily not connected with moral depravity in the worshippers.

The view, held by a number of recent writers, of the intimate relation between religion and love (that is, ultimately, the sexual instinct) is adopted by Dr. Moses; he rejects, however, the extreme position of certain writers, and holds (p. 19) that love is only one of the oldest sources of the religious sentiment. Such views of the origin of religion appear to rest on an ignoring of early history, and on a confusion of similarity with the relation of cause and effect. They go counter to the earliest known form of the religious sentiment (which is simply the desire to keep on good terms with preterhuman powers) and of religious usages; these latter have generally no sexual element, and, conversely, this element of social life is found without religious ceremonies. The similarities between the emotion of love and religious emotion are obvious (they have been well stated by Dr. Hall); both are strong nervous excitements, and one may pass over into the other, or rather one may be produced by the other. Love to the deity is a normal emotion, that, under favorable conditions, may become pathological. The examples of erotic emotion in religious persons are all taken from times of high culture; that they do not occur in early stages of civilization is evidence that such emotion is not related to religion as cause to effect.

The volume under consideration contains, besides its large mass of material, many excellent observations: its value is impaired by a number of misstatements of fact, and by the author's lack of training in historical research. The proof-reading, also, is very bad. As Dr. Moses's general points of view are good, we feel confident that he will be able to revise his book in such way as to bring out more clearly its fundamental idea.

The Nibelungenlied. Translated by John Storer Cobb. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

Ninety years have passed since Lachmann first gave to the world his memorable text of the Nibelungenlied, and since then a vast library of interpretation has arisen concerning the German epic. Most of the books have been scholarly commentaries and microscopical examinations of the tattered originals; while but a minority of the works are translations into modern tongues. Few as these are, however, they represent about equally German and English literary workmanship, the translations of Lettsom (1850), Foster-Barham (1887), Birch (1887), and Needler (1904) setting off the versions of Simrock (1827), Freytag, and Bartsch. The last valuable translation into English was made by a Canadian, and the one before us is the work of an American. The author, however, is dead, and he did not finally revise his manuscript. It is difficult to tell, therefore, whether the occasional roughness in the verse is due to this incompleteness or to the knotty style of the original, almost defying, at times, a satisfactory rendering into our modern speech. All in all, this effort seems praiseworthy; but a comparison of the average of the verse with the Lachmann text shows more than one radical departure from the sense of the original, departures that other versions seem not to have required.

The Nibelungen strophe, of the beginning of the thirteenth century, includes four long lines, the second rhyming with the first, and the fourth with the third. Each line is halved by a definite cæsura; there are three accented syllables in each half of the first three lines and the first half of the fourth line, and there are four accented syllables in the second half of the fourth line. A syllable with a secondary accent ends the first half of each line, producing thereby a "klingende" cæsura, and it is the fixed number of accented syllables that conditions the metrical character of the Nibelungen strophe. Most of the feet are iambic, because usually an unaccented syllable precedes an accented one, but the unaccented syllable may at times be wanting, or two or three of them may bunch together. Perhaps Mr. Cobb, who clearly is no bungler, but rather an over-careful elaborator, had these facts in mind in cases where he allows himself great liberty. A fair strophe to cite is the opening one, with its complete cæsural rhyme; and how near Mr. Cobb has approached the German, and how his work compares with that of Foster-Barham and Needler the reader may judge for himself:

Uns ist in alten maeren, wunders vil geseit.
von helden lobebæren, von grôzer kuonheit.
von frôuden hôchgeziten, von weinen und von klagen,
von küener recken-striten, muget ir nu wunder hœren sagen.

Foster-Barham:

Traditions of the olden time of marvels in abundance tell;
Of heroes worth our utmost praise, of gallantry unspeakable,
Of grand festivities and joy, of bitter plaint and scalding tear,
Of bold assaults of warriors; and now these wonders you may hear.

Needler:

Many a wondrous story have the tales of old,
Of feats of knightly glory, and of the heroes bold,
Of the delights of feasting, of weeping and of wail,
Of noble deeds of daring; you may list strange things in my tale.

Cobb:

To us in olden story are wonders many told
Of heroes rich in glory, of trials manifold:
Of joy and festive greeting, of weeping and of woe,
Of keenest warriors meeting, shall ye now many a wonder know.

Still another extract may be offered to show Mr. Cobb's rendering:

Ez wuohs in Burgonden ein schœne mägedîn,
daz in allen landen niht schœners mohte sîn,

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Kriemhilt was si geheizen und was ein schœne wip.
dar umbe muosen degene vil verliesen den lip

In Burgundy there once grew up so excellent and fair a maid,
That not in any land on earth could greater beauty be displayed.
Kriemhilda was the name she bore, and she attained such loveliness,
That many a swordsman had for her his life and name to sacrifice.

The volume is attractive in typography, illustration, and binding, being embellished with a portrait of the translator. There is also a fragmentary Introduction written on his death-bed.

Ancient Law. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. With Introduction and Notes by Sir Frederick Pollock. Fourth American from the Tenth London Edition. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.75.

Maine's "Ancient Law" appeared in 1861. Darwin's "Origin of Species" preceded it by little more than a year. Like that other epoch-making book, "Ancient Law" introduced new modes of thought and of language, provoked controversy, and won disciples. Phrases devised by Maine have become mere commonplaces. Who has not heard that in progressive societies there "has hitherto been a movement from Status to Contract"? Because of the impetus given by Maine to the historical and comparative study of legal systems, it has become necessary to prepare an annotated edition of his chief book—not in order to correct the few errors of the explorer who blazed the way, but in order to give to the reader those illustrations and developments of Maine's doctrines which have been made by later investigators. This unambitious but learned task has been undertaken by Sir Frederick Pollock; and it has been performed modestly and adequately, in a spirit filial, but not servile.

Maine's "Ancient Law" touches upon so many topics—archæology, history, politics, ethics, and metaphysics—that it would have been practicable to write several volumes by way of commentary. Hence it would be easy to point out interesting subjects upon which nothing is said in Sir Frederick Pollock's twelve pages of introduction and sixty pages of notes. But since the commentator's studies are known to have covered almost the same varied ground as the author's, the commentator's choice of subjects has obviously been guided not by lack of knowledge or of industry, but by a theory as to the relative importance of the materials. May one venture to say that a few more words as to Hammurabi would have been appreciated, and that students can make use of more numerous references to treatises, periodicals, and the proceedings of learned societies? The notes, like the text, are interesting to any reader with scholarly taste, whether a lawyer or not. Surely, any one of scholarly taste will enjoy what Sir Frederick Pollock says (in notes E, G, H, K, P, R, and S) as to the law of nature, the modern law of nations, the patriarchal theory, the village communities of India, contract in early law, and archaic procedure. Indeed, the book appeals to a public so wide that the publishers might well have ventured to throw aside the plates from which earlier editions of the text have been printed, and also to extend the index in such manner as to include Sir Frederick Pollock's commentary; but these shortcomings are overbalanced by the result that this edition sells for half the price of its predecessor; for it is no small matter that this brilliant and inspiring classic is now brought within the reach of every student.

The Fair Hills of Ireland. By Stephen Gwynn. With illustrations by Hugh Thomson. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2.

Mr. Gwynn might have styled his book "The Praise of Ireland." It is an exultant hymn to her loveliness, especially to those beauties which the careless stranger has neglected. In other words, he leaves the beaten tourist track, and has nothing to say of Killarney or the Giant's Causeway. He describes places that have really a more general human interest, and that have associations covering a great range in the story of the Irish race. This is not to say that the scenery of those districts is not charming. Even if Mr. Gwynn's vivid pen did not convince the reader of the contrary, the delicate, fairy-like sketches of Mr. Thomson would be a revelation of the beauty of many spots in Donegal and the south and west. But, however picturesque such a country may be, the imagination must also people it with historical and legendary associations. Mr. Gwynn relates many heroic deeds and legends.

Though he tries to make us realize Ireland both as she is and as she was, his prepossessions are in favor of the period when Irish genius produced its most effective work in literature and art—the seven centuries before the Norman invasion. We have descriptions of the monuments of these early days, accompanied by fine pictures of such magnificent ruins as Cashel of the Kings, Clonmacnoise and Mellifont. But Ireland has no longer builders like those who raised the ancient structures, whose work, where it has escaped mutilation, mocks in his opinion the incompetence of to-day. Still, this might be said of the modern architecture of a good many other European lands. Cashel, because of its picturesque situation on a rock, over three hundred feet high, dropped in the Golden Vale, the most luxuriant pasture-land in the British Islands, and because of the fairly good condition of some of the buildings after the wear and tear of more than a thousand years, is perhaps the noblest monument of ancient Irish culture remaining. Mr. Gwynn's accurate and eloquent picture should tempt many a tourist to visit this acropolis of Munster. Mr. Gwynn shows that the Stone of Destiny, carried away from Scotland by Edward I., and now beneath the royal throne in Westminster, is a sham *Lia fail.* The real thing is still at Tara. He might have strengthened his argument by adducing the well-known fact that the stone emitted a roaring sound when an usurper took his stand upon it, while the fraudulent affair in London has always been silent. There is, however, one drawback to the legends told by Mr. Gwynn. The orthography of the names of the heroes, and even of the heroines, is repulsive, and will always be an obstacle to the wide acceptance of these historical, semi-historical, and mythical romances. The words are not so much cacophonous, as, if an epithet may be coined for the occasion, cacographous. For instance, Dubhthach looks atrocious; but, as pronounced, Duffa, it is innocent and euphonious enough.

The tourist will find the book invaluable as a guide, especially if he be a fisherman; for Mr. Gwynn is an enthusiastic angler, and seems to know every trout and salmon stream in the kingdom.

Russia: Travels and Studies. By Annette M. B. Meakin. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4 net.

"The first thing that struck us on our arrival at Kursk was a triumphal arch bearing the date 1823, erected in honor of Alexander I. when he visited Kursk on his way to the Crimea. The second thing that struck us was the high price asked for stale eggs and the impossibility of obtaining fresh ones." The thing that strikes the reader of Miss Meakin's "Russia" is a certain inconsequence of matter and style, of which our citation is typical. This is unfortunate, because the author, who is a member of the British Anthropological Institute and a noted traveller, has packed into her pages a really vast amount of information which is generally exact, even if it is not always new and is never profound. The book is a Baedeker on Russia, which it traverses from north to south, ending with a trip through the Crimea and the Caucasus. Like all Baedekers, it can scarcely be said to overflow with human interest; and it contains little that would prove of value to the reader who may look for light on the present political situation in the Czar's dominions. On the other hand, the book was never intended to answer such a purpose.

Miss Meakin's interests are in the fields of archæology and ethnology. To the former, in particular, she devotes almost three-fourths of her work, and in its minute and careful description of Russian antiquities, supplemented by copious, perhaps too copious, references to early Russian history, lies the chief value of the volume. We know of no popular book in English that deals so fully with the treasures of the Russian monasteries and museums, both public and private. It is indicative of the character and purpose of the book that Moscow, which is not rich in antiquarian associations, receives 13 pages, while Novgorod (not Nizhni) has 26 pages, and Pskoff 27. There are excellent chapters on the position and influence of the German colonists in the interior of Russia, on the Setukese Ests of the north, and on the Little Russians. There is the inevitable visit to Tolstoi, marked by that master's inevitable shattering of an idol or two. But the best part of the book for the reader without archæological tastes is the account of a wonderful trip through the lotus land of the Crimea, the beautiful Golden Chersonesus of mountain and blue water.

There is a regrettable weakness in the matter of the names of the Russian governments: Peterhoff (p. 58) is given for St. Petersburg; Riga (p. 176) for Livonia, and Semenoff (p. 221) for we do not know what.

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Science.

PHYSICS AT CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND.

CAMBRIDGE, England, February 2.

This year there are about twenty research students in the Cavendish Laboratory, and room for little more than half as many. Fortunately the liberality of Lord Rayleigh, who gave his Nobel prize money for an extension of the laboratory, will remedy this congestion. The nucleus of this school is the knot of Cambridge men who stay on for research work after graduation; but the greater number are foreigners—picked men from the colonies, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Africa, who come up on exhibition scholarships, and men from Germany, Bohemia, France, America, Russia, and elsewhere. The head of the school is, of course, Prof. J. J. Thomson. He is not an experimental worker with his men, but rather the general who directs his army from his desk. For a parallel to this school of physics we have to go back to some of the mediæval schools where, about some noted scholar, students from distant places gathered. The same intensity in work and enthusiasm for the master, and perhaps also the same tendency to narrowness and lack of appreciation of the work of others, characterize both. But it should be remembered that while this limitation to a single subject, the nature of electricity, may not be the best training for the men who have grown up entirely in this atmosphere, yet it may be excellent for older men, especially those who have been educated in other universities. These come here to get first-hand knowledge of the corpuscular theories of matter and electricity. Instead of learning one or two problems, they are the sharers in the difficulties and triumphs of a score of similar ones.

The first impressions of the laboratory are not encouraging, as there seems to be a lack of appliances and apparatus. Later, however, we realize that there is a fairly good stock of apparatus for certain kinds of work, and that the laboratory has been adapted to meet a special end. About twelve years ago, following a hint given by Maxwell, that probably a study of the discharge of electricity through gases would be the best means of learning the mutual relations between matter and electricity, work was begun in this branch of physics. The problems encountered have absorbed the resources of the laboratory more and more, until to-day scarcely any other phenomena are investigated here. High potential cabinets, induction coils, and liquid-air machines are plentiful, while scarcely any appliances are to be found for work in sound, heat, light, etc. But the laboratory, if poor in apparatus, is extravagant in assistants and skilled artisans, to help in the vital matter of constructing new apparatus.

The terms of the university are, as all know, short; only about six months in the year being given to lectures. But the laboratories and libraries are open practically all the year, and research and honor men extend their work very considerably. Hours in the day, too, are not long for most of the men, and one notes a lack of the feverishness which seems to hang about American laboratories. Where at home should we find all quitting work at half-past four in order to have tea? Yet the chat and tea in Professor Thomson's office are refreshing, and tend wonderfully to draw the men closer together. Nor is it any sign of trifling, for turn to the journals and we shall find that the work done here is comparable in amount to that of all our great laboratories, taken together. And this more natural life prevents the mental dyspepsia which attacks our irritated and harried candidates for the Ph.D. There is no reason for these men to take two or three years to regain their elasticity of mind and to feel that an iron hand is not squeezing the intellectual blood out of the body.

In fact, it is a pity that more of our students do not choose England rather than Germany as a place for study. For the older men there is a chance to meet intimately the distinguished scholars of Cambridge, who show a hospitality quite unusual. Probably the principal reason why our men go elsewhere is because Cambridge cannot offer them the Ph.D. degree. But this drawback is more seeming than real. After two years of work, the foreign research student is eligible to the degree of bachelor of arts, and afterwards to those of master of arts and doctor of science, whether he remains in residence or not. And these degrees should carry as much weight as the ordinary Ph.D. of Germany, since they are given for the same kind of work. There is also another great advantage, in that an able man should obtain one of the numerous scholarships which are open to all. The authorities have not taken much pains to make the facilities of laboratories, libraries, and scholarships known to us, but it is quite evident that our coming is warmly welcomed. Those who avail themselves of the invitation will surely look back on their life here as one of the pleasantest of their experiences.

LOUIS TRENCHARD MORE.

In celebration of the bicentenary of the birth of Linnæus in this city on May 23, the American Museum of Natural History will place on exhibition specimens of the minerals and the American animals known to Linnæus; and the Botanical Garden will show trees and plants known to him. At the Garden the botanical writings and the portraits of Linnæus will also be exhibited. The Zoölogical Park, too, will have its share in showing animals; and in the Aquarium in Battery Park the features of marine life known to Linnæus will be set forth. At eleven in the morning, at the American Museum, Archer M. Huntington, president of the American Geographical Society, will deliver a lecture on "North American Geography in the Time of Linnæus"; and at 11:30 Dr. Joel A. Allen, curator of ornithology and mammology in the Museum, will speak on "Linnæus and American Zoölogy." At 2:45 Dr. Per Axel Rydberg, curator of the Garden Herbarium, will deliver at the Herbarium an address on "Linnæus and American Botany." This will be followed by an exhibition of lantern slides of flowers of North America. A bronze tablet commemorative of Linnæus, a gift to the city from the New York Academy of Sciences, will be unveiled, at 4:30, at the bridge over the Bronx River, in Pelham Parkway. On this occasion there will be several addresses. In the evening at the Brooklyn Institute there will also be addresses, including one by Prof. F. A. Lucas, on "Linnæus and American Natural History." The committee in charge of the celebration consists of Dr. N. L. Britton, director of the Botanical Garden; Dr. H. C. Bumpus, director of the American Museum; Prof. F. A. Lucas, director of the Museum of the Brooklyn Institute; William T. Hornaday, director of the Zoölogical Park; Charles H. Townsend, director of the Aquarium, and Prof. W. M. Wheeler, curator of invertebrate zoölogy in the American Museum.

The collection of *algæ* made during the last thirty years by E. M. Holmes, curator of the Pharmaceutical Society's Museum in Bloomsbury Square, London, has been acquired for the botanical department of the University of Birmingham. The collection includes about 13,000 specimens, and, apart from the national collections at the British Museum and Kew, is the best of its kind in Great Britain. The British portion includes three or four species which have been found but once.

The ninth international geographical congress will meet in Geneva from July 27 to August 6, with Prof. Arthur de Claparède of the Geneva Geographical Society as president. At the same time the semi-centennial of this latter association will be observed. More than fifty papers have already been announced.

Prof. William Clendenin Pickett, a well-known authority on nervous diseases, died in Philadelphia February 6. He was born in Meadville, Pa., in 1870, and was a graduate of Allegheny College. He studied medicine at the Jefferson Medical College, Philadelphia, and was graduated in 1895. He was professor of nervous and mental diseases at the Medico-Chirurgical College of Philadelphia, and was elected president of the Neurological Society in 1906. He was a contributor to the medical journals.

Drama.

"THE GOOD HOPE."

"The Good Hope," an English version by Christopher St. John from the Dutch of Heijermans, which was played in the Empire Theatre on Monday evening, by Ellen Terry and her company, is interesting as a specimen of national drama by an obvious imitator of Ibsen, but it furnishes indifferent entertainment. It shows how dull mere realism can be without the saving grace of imagination. In some respects it is a good piece of work. It is sincere and vigorous, it is not deficient in either passion or pathos, and it is often very close to nature; but its insistence upon harrowing, familiar, and rather sordid incidents, its spineless construction, and its lack of humorous relief and genuine invention make it more than a little dull. Like "The Pillars of Society" it deals with the murderous shipowners who make money by sending ignorant sailors to sea in rotten ships which have been highly insured. Clemens Bos, the smack owner, is but an exaggerated Consul Bernick. Of real dra-

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matic action there is very little, but there are a number of effective episodes.

The central character is a widow with two sons; the elder has been dismissed from the navy and sent to prison for insubordination, the younger has been a soldier, but has a terror of the sea. The former ships on the Good Hope, a rotten old craft, after a fierce and plainspoken encounter with her owner; the other is carried on board by the police after attempting to desert. Both are drowned, and in the last act the bereaved mother is sent away with a bowl of soup for consolation, while the owner of the sea-coffin pockets a heavy insurance. This is practically the whole of the story, but the bare outlines are filled in with a mass of detail, illustrative of the human wreckage wrought by the system, and much of this is very lifelike, if less often dramatic. Thus there are studies of old pauper fishermen, of widows, and of bereaved maidens, who ought to have been wives, all in contrast with the flourishing boat proprietor whose gain is in their loss. There are eloquent passages of futile rage and hopeless despair, and, occasionally, a climax of genuine dramatic force. In the hands of actors skilled in the elemental emotions and possessed of genuine tragic power, these might be deeply impressive. But Miss Terry's company proved quite incapable of reproducing the Dutch atmosphere or of rightfully interpreting the situations, while she herself, though she filled the part with a strange pathos and a charm wholly foreign to it, was completely out of her proper element in the character of the unhappy old mother. In this experiment she does justice neither to Heijermans nor to herself.

Signor Ermeti Novelli, the eminent Italian actor, will appear in this city early in the spring, supported by Signora Jinninni. He expects to play in "Louis XI." by Casimir Delavigne, "Papa Lebonnard" by Marie Aycard, "The Merchant of Venice," "King Lear," "Othello," "Hamlet," "Kean," "La Morte Civile," and "Povera Gente." It will, therefore, be possible to compare his work with that of Salvini and Rossi. Signor Novelli's Shylock is said to be one of his finest impersonations.

It is good news that W. S. Gilbert is once again writing for the stage. He is working on a new comedy, in partnership with Mrs. Henry de la Pasture, but the nature of it has not yet been made public.

Music.

FOUR-HAND PIANO PIECES.

The world is full of pianists eager for fame and fortune, yet not a dozen of them have won sufficient fame to enable them to win a fortune. Piano recitals are practically "played out"; newspaper readers would be astonished if the reports of recitals by even prominent performers included a frank statement as to how few attend them, and how many of those who do attend are deadheads. The pianoforte manufacturer is still responsible for most of these concerts; he is willing to bear the loss for the advertising he gets incidentally—the chance he has to point out that so and so uses only his instruments.

Probably the main reason for the neglect of pianoforte recitals lies in the monotony of the programmes, which is truly astounding. One would think, to judge by these stereotyped lists, that the pianistic repertory includes only a hundred available pieces, whereas there are thousands. The pianists do not make sufficient use of their brains. Just at present, for instance, there is a great desire (as revealed by the demand in the music stores) to hear the pieces of the unfortunate Edward MacDowell; but only one or two of the concert pianists have availed themselves of this opportunity to enrich their repertory and do good at the same time, while enlarging the circle of their listeners. Nor has it apparently occurred to any of them that the public likes new ideas in concert-giving, as in other things. A new idea would be the combination of two eminent pianists for the purpose of giving concerts of four-hand pieces.

Here there is a field which remains almost entirely unharvested, although some of the greatest masters have tilled it. Bach, Mozart, Beethoven, are to be named here, but above all, Schubert. In his admirable biography of the master, Richard Heuberger demonstrates how far Schubert went beyond his predecessors, including Beethoven, in divining the tonal splendors of the pianoforte of the future, and utilizing these possibilities in the shaping of his enchanting pieces. He dwells particularly on the fact that Schubert created a new art of writing four-hand pieces for the pianoforte, in which he utilized the varied tone colors of the modern pianoforte in an unprecedented, unique, infinitely enchanting manner. "Among the thousands of pieces for four hands written since Schubert's death," he goes on to say, "there is hardly one which even remotely reaches his works of this class in their genuine adaptation to the idiom of the pianoforte."

In the recent "Schubert Heft" of the Berlin periodical, *Die Musik*, another German scholar, Dr. Hermann Wetzel, sings the praises of these four-hand compositions, and voices his astonishment at their neglect by pianists, both public and private. In these pieces, he points out, we find at their very best all the qualities which have so endeared Schubert to music-lovers—his incessant flow of original melody, his new harmonies and ravishing modulations to remote keys, the novel tone colors he evokes from the instrument by the formation and distribution of his chords, his partial anticipation of the Lisztian art of producing orchestral effects with the pianoforte, yet without going beyond the limits of legitimate pianism. He makes no mention of some of the best of Schubert's four-hand pieces—the splendid marches—but dwells particularly on the "Divertissement à la Hongroise," and other more extended works, including the remarkably orchestral sonata in C, issued by Diabelli as "Grand Duo," concerning which Wetzel makes the very interesting suggestion that it may be an arrangement of the lost Schubert symphony, for which George Grove and others searched so persistently, but in vain.

Neither Heuberger nor Wetzel makes mention of the fact that there is a living master, Edvard Grieg, who has written four-hand pianoforte pieces which are as melodious and as idiomatic as Schubert's. Music-lovers who may be tempted by the foregoing remarks to explore this musical Klondike will find an excellent guide in Eschmann's "Wegweiser durch die Klavierliteratur," p. 259.

"Songs for Schools," compiled by Charles Hubert Farnsworth, with accompaniments written by Harvey Worthington Loomis and B. D. Allen (Macmillan Co.), is one of the best books of school music ever issued, and occupies a place of its own. It contains about a hundred numbers, Part I. being devoted to national, folk, and college songs; Part II. to sacred songs. The choice of songs was governed partly by the preferences of school children themselves—a somewhat risky policy which, however, has in this case led to no objectionable results. In the folk and college songs only the melody is given to the voices, to make the work of the singers more effective and avoid the many difficulties of part singing. The most admirable feature of this collection lies in the pianoforte parts written for the folk-songs by Mr. Loomis, who is not only one of the leading American composers, but who has shown unique skill in the art of emphasizing by his harmonies the national peculiarities inherent in the melodic and rhythmic features of folk-music. In "A Highland Lad" one would have welcomed a little more of the drone bass, but apart from this, it would be difficult to suggest a criticism.

Lovers of Hungarian folk music—of which Liszt gives specimens in his rhapsodies—will be interested in a collection of these tunes issued by Ladislaus Kun, who spent many years gathering them in villages and farmhouses. Three volumes have appeared so far, comprising 100 tunes each; the entire collection is to contain 1,000 numbers.

The Puccini cycle at the Metropolitan Opera House reached its climax on Monday evening when "Madama Butterfly" had its first performance there, with a cast including Mmes. Farrar and Homer, and Messrs. Caruso, Scotti, Reiss, and Mühlmann, and in presence of the composer, who had supervised the rehearsals. Many had hoped that he would conduct at least the first performance, but Mr. Puccini has no faith in himself as an orchestral leader. That he knows how to write for the orchestra, however, as eloquently as for the voice, is attested once more by this, his latest opera, which is on the whole his masterwork, even though his desire to make it fill out a whole evening led him to do violence to the pathetic and fascinating one-act play on which it is based. The great success achieved at the first performance, when there were countless recalls of the singers and the composer, makes it a matter of course that it will figure in the repertory in every city to be visited by the Conried company in April. It will doubtless add considerably to the fame of Puccini, as well as of Miss Farrar, whose Cho-Cho-San is perhaps her most notable achievement so far—an impersonation ranking with the best now to be seen on the operatic stage. It reveals the beauty of her voice in full, and gives her abundant opportunity to prove that of all opera singers Mme. Calvé is the only one who equals her in the art of sincerely and subtly expressing the whole gamut of emo-

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tions, or at least as much of it as is comprised in the story of the Japanese maiden who is wooed and deserted by the American officer.

Carrying coals to Newcastle, the Pittsburgh Orchestra and the Mendelssohn Choir of Toronto came to town this week for two concerts in Carnegie Hall. The Pittsburgh Orchestra had been heard here before, in the days when Victor Herbert was its conductor. It need hardly be said that neither it, nor its present conductor, Emil Paur, rose, in the most important work performed by them—Beethoven's Choral Symphony—to our highest standard; for New York is exceptionally strong in orchestral music. But of the Toronto Choir quite a different story must be told. We are so little used to first-class choral singing that the performances of this Canadian club came like a revelation; not so much in the choral parts of the Beethoven Symphony, however, when Mr. Paur was at the helm, as in the Thirteenth Psalm of Liszt, the motet "By Babylon's Wave," by Gounod, and Tchaikovsky's "Cherubim Song," in which the Mendelssohn Choir's own conductor, A. S. Vogt, presided. He secured a precision, a balance of tone, a richness of nuance, to which we are unaccustomed, and the result was a sensational success. The Gounod motet and the Liszt psalm, in particular, were sung with a contagious enthusiasm.

Two important works, one of which is entirely new to New York, will be played by the Boston Symphony Orchestra in its next concerts in Carnegie Hall. On Thursday evening, February 21, the symphony will be Sibelius's in E minor, No. 1. This work, when played in Boston was regarded as in every respect more important than the composer's second symphony in D major, which is better known. On Saturday afternoon, February 23, the first number on the programme will be Richard Strauss's "Sinfonia Domestica," which has been played in New York but once, three years ago. Mme. Samaroff will be the soloist on Thursday evening, playing Tchaikovsky's concerto for piano in B flat minor. Ossip Gabrilowitch will be the soloist on Saturday afternoon, playing Brahms's concerto in E flat major, No. 2.

The Richard Wagner and Mozart festival performance will take place again the coming season at Munich. The "Ring" will be performed three times, "Tristan and Isolde" four times, and the "Meistersinger" and "Tannhäuser" twice each. Of Mozart operas there will be two performances each of "Don Juan," "The Marriage of Figaro," and the "Abduction from the Seraglio."

Art.

EXHIBITION OF THE ARCHITECTURAL LEAGUE.

The twenty-second annual exhibition of the Architectural League of New York, now in progress in the galleries of the American Fine Arts building, is notable for the severe selection of exhibits. It is the smallest show for years, the catalogue including but 752 items. Even this means a considerable number of objects, but it also means that the overcrowded galleries which have long been characteristic of the League have for once become a thing of the past. Obviously this process of drastic rejection can be excused only by a corresponding gain in excellence. The exhibition can be readily seen, and this is a distinct improvement; but as a representative exhibit of the current work of our best architects—and the contributions are by no means limited to the members of the League—it manifestly falls far short of completeness. Of course, the busiest architects often have no time to prepare exhibition drawings; but the exhibitions of the League have so long aimed to include the best contemporary work that a change in policy must, again, be justified by the results.

The usual classification is still retained although considerably modified. The first gallery, as heretofore, is filled with color sketches and drawings; the little central gallery contains chiefly sculpture, mostly in small scale models; but the adjoining rooms are no longer limited to minor arts, and in their place are photographs and drawings of architectural objects, and some miscellaneous exhibits which only faintly recall the interesting decorative pieces of former years. The Vanderbilt Gallery is reserved for the architectural drawings, with which, however, are displayed some large pieces of sculpture and some color drawings. These, while undoubtedly enhancing the interest of the room make its contents more miscellaneous in character.

It is this gallery by which the exhibition, as an architectural display, may best be judged. Here presumably is the most important material. One notes with amazement, therefore, large areas of wall space given up to colored drawings of foreign buildings and designs by foreign architects. Vastly courteous this yielding up of the choicest spaces is, and the colored drawings of historical buildings in Europe are entertaining and delightful. But this plan hardly serves the traditional purpose of the League, to interest the public in architecture, especially that of this country.

It should immediately be added, however, that a survey of the gallery as a whole will strengthen one's respect for the ability and resources of our contemporary American architects. The average of the work shown is high, perhaps because there is so little of it. And this excellence is the more remarkable since there is absolutely no suggestion of unified progress, no movement in a single direction. But there is a firmer handling of ideas, a better use of precedents. This is particularly apparent in the Gothic designs—several churches and one or two commercial buildings—in which the mediæval forms have been studied afresh for modern use and translated into modern designs, which while frankly based on old *motifs* are genuinely alive.

In this respect, therefore, there is encouraging progress; but it is impossible to tell, from anything here shown, whether the buildings designed in 1906 are better than those produced earlier. In the matter of domestic architecture, indeed, the exhibition is positively discouraging. Here is the one point on which the exhibition ought to appeal successfully to the layman, and it is exactly here that it fails. Former shows have fallen short in this respect, but seldom have designs for private dwellings been so few as this year. The reason is not far to seek. Every American architect is consumed with an ambition to associate his name with the creation of a great public building, monumental in character. The private house is rarely so important that it can rank as a really notable structure. Yet a good private house, even of small size and low cost, is a most interesting structure; and while some of these are shown, the number is disappointing. The private house is the one building that particularly attracts the layman, since it is his own especial piece of architecture. Even when he has had it built for his own use by his own architect he cannot understand all the vagaries that are bound to enter into its construction. Here is an opportunity for public instruction which the Architectural League has long neglected, but which will afford limitless opportunities for all the energy it may command.

While the chief parts of the exhibition are confined to the main galleries, there are a few exhibits in the entrance corridor and a number of competition drawings in the League's own room upstairs. The hall of the National Sculpture Society contains students' drawings, entered in sundry competitions conducted by the Society of Beaux-Arts Architects. Most of these drawings are concerned with the intensely theoretical and impossible problems the followers of the French school delight in, and some of them, surely, are French enough in spirit and draftsmanship to afford unbounded delight to the admirers of this sort of thing.

BARR FERREE.

In spite of the prices his works fetch in the picture-market of to-day, it is hard for the student of art to take Sir Thomas Lawrence very seriously. He was the last survivor of a good school of painting at a time when painting had almost ceased to exist outside of England, and his prodigious success abroad as well as at home probably had a good deal to do with the direction taken by the romantic revival, although neither his influence nor that of Constable, of which we hear more, was as decisive as that of the exhibition in the Louvre of Napoleon's artistic plunder. Lawrence could draw better than either Reynolds or Gainsborough, but he did not choose to draw so well, and he sacrificed form to the fashion of the day as he sacrificed truth of color to glitter and brilliancy. He was jealous of Hoppner, who though a less able man, was a more sincere artist. Some of his earlier work convinces one that he might almost have been a great painter had he not preferred to be a fashionable one. His character, his accomplishments, and his good looks doubtless helped his success as much as his flashy and meretricious talent, and it is worth while to read George Soames Layard's book, called "Sir Thomas Lawrence's Letter-bag" (Longmans, Green & Co.), to get, in the letters written to and by him, a picture of the eternal type of the fashionable portrait painter. It is a type with much of good in it, and one finds one's self liking the man and, on the whole, pitying him.

It is a very different personality that is brought before us in Camille Mauclair's little book, in the Duckworth-Dutton Pop-

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ular Library of Art, on Watteau: the professedly frivolous painter of *Fêtes galantes* —the great, the sincere, the melancholy master. We have all felt the sadness and the sentiment that underlie the apparent gayety of Watteau, the longing of a sick soul for pleasures that the flesh could never enjoy, but no one before M. Mauclair has so definitely labelled it. He associates the art of Watteau with that of Mozart, of Schubert, of Chopin, and of Keats, and a great part of his book reads like a dissertation on the psychology of consumption. A greater than Watteau, and an artist whose profound sentiment is more analogous to Watteau's than any other we know in painting, was also a precocious genius and destined to an early death. Giorgione died at thirty-four; as it used to be said, of a broken-heart, as we now know, of the plague. One wonders if the painter of the Partie Champêtre was a consumptive like the painter of the Embarquement pour Cythère?

In 1905 Theodore M. Davis of this city discovered at Thebes the tomb of the Egyptian Queen Teye. He has now made a more important discovery in the tomb and mummy of the Queen herself. Teye was the wife of Amen-hotep III., of the Eighteenth Dynasty, who reigned in the fifteenth century B. C. Her son was the famous Heretic King who, under the inspiration of his mother, attempted to do away with the old religion for an exclusive worship of the sun. Teye's tomb, a square chamber cut in the solid rock, shows signs of priestly revenge. But these fanatics, who erased the name of the Heretic King from every article in the sepulchre, left the coffin of the Queen intact, with all the jewelry and sheets of solid gold buried with her. On her head was still found the imperial golden crown representing a vulture, with a signet ring in either talon. The mummy itself had been reduced to pulp by the water which had percolated through the rock. It fell to pieces when examined by several Egyptologists on January 26.

The Belgian archæologist Graindor has laid bare the Poseidon temple on the island of Tenos, and in connection with it a magnificent hall of columns, a "round seat," or *exedra*, of marble well preserved, a series of sculptural remains, such as two dolphins in relief form, as also a number of inscriptions. These nearly all were gifts dedicated to Poseidon and Amphitrite. Thus one stone states that it was dedicated by the Rhodian navy, and contains the names of several captains; other stones contain the names of artists of an early date otherwise unknown. An interesting specimen is a large block of marble on which a sundial has been cut, giving also the directions of the wind, the course of the sun, and the seasons of the year. Considerable of this has been preserved, as also the epigram on the stone, which states that this astronomical work was modelled after that of Andronicus Kyrrhestes. Every visitor in Athens remembers the Tower of the Winds, one of the best preserved monuments of ancient Athens, concerning which Varro and Vitruvius have written. We now learn from this epigram that Andronicus was not a native of the Kyrrhos in Syria, as has been believed all along, but from the place of this name in Macedonia; also, that he was an interpreter of the astronomical poems of Aratus of Soloi, and that he studied the courses of the stars, predicting also the eclipses of the sun and of the moon. For the first time, then, we now have satisfactory information in reference to this man, famous in the history of astronomy. The paper of Graindor is found in the last issue of the report of the *Musée Belge*.

The International Archæological Congress will meet in Egypt April 10 to 21 under the presidency of Prof. G. C. C. Maspero. There will be sessions at Cairo, Alexandria and Thebes.

The exhibition of arts and crafts at Copley Hall, Boston, began last week Tuesday, and will remain open until February 26.

The seventh international exhibition of fine arts of Venice will be open from April 22 to October 31.

Paintings by Mr. and Mrs. Colin Campbell Cooper will be on exhibition till February 16 at Powell's gallery in this city. The most interesting of them are scenes on the New York streets. The same date will mark the close of an exhibition of work by Claude Monet at Durand-Ruel's gallery; of the Woman's Art Club at Clausen's; of landscapes by Paul Doherty at Macbeth's; of paintings by Miss Content Johnson at Fishel, Adler, and Schwartz's; and of portraits of children by Elliott Bouton Torrey at C. Klackner's. Till February 23 there will be a show of prints by old and modern masters at Wunderlich & Co.'s; and of landscapes by Charles Melville Dewey at Louis Katz's. Frederick Keppel & Co. exhibit till March 9 engravings by early German masters. Work is shown by Martin Schongauer, Israel van Meckenen, Lucas Cranach, Lucas Krug, Jacob Binck, Dirk van Staaren, Albrecht Dürer, Lucas of Leyden, Albrecht Altdorfer, Barthel and Hans Sebald Beham, Georg Pencz, Heinrich Aldegrever, and Daniel Hopfer.

The foreign mails bring news of the death of three well-known European painters. The first is Théodore Verstraete, a Belgian landscape artist, who was born at Ghent in 1850. He entered the Académie des Beaux-Arts at Antwerp, in 1867; and for many years his pictures of Flemish and Dutch landscapes were very popular. He was one of the founders of the Association des XX. A few years ago he broke down mentally. The second death is that of Félix Barrias, a French historical painter, prominent in the Second Empire. He was eighty-four years of age. Among his pictures are Cincinnatus recevant les Députés du Sénat, Les Exiles de Tibère, Dante à Ravenne, and Débarquement de l'Armée Française à Oldport. He illustrated the Firmin-Didot editions of Horace and Virgil. Wilhelm Amandus Beer, who died in his seventieth year, at Frankfort, was for many years professor at the Städelsche Kunstinstitut in that city. His scenes of Bavarian peasant life were popular, but his pictures of Russia are more widely known: The Fair in the Province of Smolensk, The Horse Fair, and the First Turkish Prisoners in a Russian Town.

Rudolphe Julian, founder of the school of painting in Paris bearing his name, died Tuesday, at the age of sixty-six. He was born at Palud, in the Department of Vaucluse, came to Paris and studied at the Beaux-Arts School. He devoted several years to portrait painting, and finally opened a studio for pupils, many of whom were Americans.

Finance.

THE QUESTION OF HIGHER FREIGHT RATES.

Railroad managers have lately been discussing an advance in rates on freight to compensate for the larger outlay for wages in 1907. Apparently the intention is to put out "feelers" to test public opinion; the movement has not yet gone very far beyond this point.

It is estimated that the railroad companies will this year pay out for labor at least $100,000,000 more than in 1906. Now the railroad companies will in 1907 haul not less than 200,000,000,000 of tons of freight one mile. Consequently, if they could manage to secure only one-half of a mill per ton per mile increase in rates, that increase would amount to $100,000,000, or the increase in the wages bill. Half a mill per ton per mile is only one cent per ton carried twenty miles; and as the average distance that each ton is carried is less than 140 miles, this increase would be only *seven cents per ton of freight handled* by the railroads. It looks very little indeed when stated in this way. But when it is remembered that (apart from dividends, which are rentals because guaranteed by lessee companies on the stocks of lessor companies) the total dividends paid on railroad stocks in the United States are only about $200,000,000, and that the surplus over these dividends is less than $150,000,000, and that a reduction of two mills per ton-mile in freight rates would sweep away the entire surplus and dividend fund and leave the railroads in default on their lease rentals and bonded interest—when all this is borne in mind, mills and half-mills per ton-mile assume a very decided importance, microscopic as they may seem from the ordinary point of view. The railroads will have to demonstrate the essential justice of this additional charge in no uncertain way—otherwise public opinion will not support them, and without the support of public opinion they cannot exact it.

No more difficult question has ever come up for popular discussion in this country. In the first place, there is no possibility of measuring the price of a certain kind of transportation sold to the public, as against the cost of furnishing it, with any degree of constant accuracy, so as to determine in advance the ratio of profit. In the equation of cost there are always so many factors which are uncertain that a definite result cannot be obtained. In the second place, the return on capital invested involves a question of what is "capital," and raises the question of "water" in stock—also the question of what is a fair return. In the third place, a railroad once laid and started must continue to do business; it cannot shut down, as does a foundry or a factory. In 1893 the mills could shut down, but the railroads were operated by receivers, and necessarily so, regardless of the return on capital originally invested. In the fourth place, the existing rate sched-

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ules constitute a kind of spider's web covering the whole country, each part of which is closely interrelated with the other parts and helps to hold the entire web in equilibrium. A change of tension in one place throws the fabric out of equilibrium; and in the rate-web every change of rate is a change of tension at that particular place, the effect of which is to alter the strategic position of a particular region with reference to another region competing with it in some business, such as coal or grain.

The chief principle on which railroad managers make rates is: *the largest rate that will move the freight with due reference to competing railroads or regions.* It is seldom that railroads have refused to take freight because the rate was too low to pay. (The Norfolk and Western once did so when the rate on export grain from Chicago to the seaboard fell to something like two mills per ton-mile in the late nineties, but the case is almost unique.) A railroad is by virtue of its nature a monopoly so far as its own local business goes. In competition with other railroads there must in the long run be similar rates on competitive traffic. Thus the principle of "what the traffic will bear" and the principle of "non-competition in rates" govern in the making of railroad tariffs.

Several years ago the Eastern trunk lines, by agreement, contrived to advance rates on freight. This was done by what was euphemistically called a "reclassification" of commodities, the effect of which was to place on several hundred commodities a higher rate. At the same time rates on bituminous coal were advanced materially, but it is fair to note that these latter had previously been cut to a very low figure. From the discussion now proceeding it appears that something can be done towards securing a better ton-mile revenue by insisting upon a larger load for "car-load lots." This plan would have the double result of compelling better loading of cars, and of bringing under the higher rate-tariff for "less than car-load lots" a good deal of business now paying "car-load" rates. Against this method no possible objection could be raised on grounds of public policy, and it might accomplish much good from the point of view of the railway. A new "classification" is also talked of, but this would assuredly arouse strenuous opposition. Since the discussion of the rate bill was initiated the railways have, by eliminating rebates and concessions of various kinds, already succeeded in raising the average ton-mile revenue.

It is always asserted on behalf of the railroads in the United States that their rates on freight are the lowest in the world. This is probably true if the average ton-mile revenue be taken as a measure, but it must not be argued from this that these rates are too low. Ten years ago the average freight-train-mile revenue—*i. e.*, the sum of money received from the running of a freight train one mile—was $1.55 or thereabouts. Last year it was not less than $2.55, or one dollar more for each freight-train-mile run. The ton-mile revenue in 1897 was 0.797 cent—last year it was about 0.775 cent. The additional dollar was obtained by loading 145 tons more freight into the train. Obviously the cost of hauling 340 tons per train in 1906 was much less per ton than the cost per ton of hauling 195 tons per train in 1897; while the revenue per ton per mile in 1906 was only 3 per cent. less than in 1897. In other words, the profit per ton-mile hauled in 1906 was undoubtedly much more than the profit per ton-mile hauled in 1897. Moreover, if we assume the average ton-mile revenue as a sufficiently accurate measure of average railroad rates, we find that rates are appreciably higher now than they were a few years ago. In 1899, for example, the average revenue per ton-mile on United States railroads was 0.726 cent. In 1905 it was 0.784 cent, or almost six-tenths of a mill higher than in 1899. If the railroads in 1905 had hauled their freight at the same average revenue per ton-mile as in 1899 they would have earned about $108,000,000 less than they actually did earn—or, to put it in another way, the railroads in 1905 earned $108,000,000 more than they would have earned at the average ton-mile revenue of 1899 had that average "rate" of 1899 been applied to 1905 business. Curiously enough this is just about the amount of the increased wages bill which the companies are thinking of asking the public to pay by yet a further increase in rates.

On the whole, it is safe to say that if the question of railroad rates becomes a matter of public discussion there will be room for as many opinions as there are disputants. The differences of experts which developed in connection with the mail-pay question a few years ago are a sample of what may be expected if the whole question of rates is opened up. Meanwhile, it would seem that with an unbroken array of increased dividends confronting us in 1906 the burden of proof will be upon the railways.

"The Investments of Life Insurance Companies," by Lester W. Zartman (Henry Holt & Co.), is a valuable study in life-insurance finance. The author, who is instructor at Yale University, undertook this investigation in 1903, so that the volume is not a hasty product of the recent insurance scandals. He considers the character of the investments of life companies, the investment earnings, the cost of the investments, failures, legal regulation, the control of insurance assets, taxation, and the social effects of the accumulation of capital for insurance purposes. His method is rigorously scientific, and the result is a most useful contribution to the subject. In general he is opposed to State control of investments, though he favors thoroughgoing publicity which will enable policyholders and others to know what insurance managers are doing with the funds entrusted to their control. He appreciates the difficulty, even in mutual companies, of securing responsible management; but hopes that a reform of the "proxy" system and improvement in the methods of voting by mail will make it possible to solve the problem. The importance of this matter is fully realized by Mr. Zartman, who makes it clear that the recent disclosures may fail, just as previous ones have failed, to secure permanent reform in the large companies. He says:

> The old managements have been revealed in their misdeeds and forced out of the companies, new officials have been put in with many proclamations of future good service. With all due regard for the character of these particular individuals, it should be said that the same dangers are likely to arise again. There are still stock companies in which the policyholders have no control whatever; it remains to be seen whether under revised laws the policyholders are going to exercise any real control over their companies, and whether any system can be devised that will change the apathetic attitude which the insuring public has always taken towards insurance management, save at the time of some great agitation. Periodical investigations and temporary reforms will be the rule so long as policyholders do not exercise an active control in company affairs.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Avenel, G. d'. Prêtres, Soldats et Juges sous Richelieu. Paris: Armand Colin.
Beeching, H. C. The Apostles' Creed. Dutton. $1 net.
Benson, Arthur Christopher. The Thread of Gold. Dutton. $2 net.
Bittinger, Lucy Forney. German Religious Life in Colonial Times. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Burrill, Katharine. Loose Beads. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Chadwick, H. Munro. The Origin of the English Nation. London: Cambridge University Press. Putnams. 7s. 6d. net.
Crabbe's Poems. Edited by Adolphus W. Ward. Vol. III. London: Cambridge University Press. Putnams.
Cust, Lionel. Van Dyck. Macmillan Co. $1.75.
Deane, Anthony. At the Master's Side. Dutton.
Fairbanks, Arthur. The Mythology of Greece and Rome. Appletons.
Gannett, Henry. Statistical Abstract of the World. John Wiley & Sons.
Grant, Mrs. Colquhoun. Queen and Cardinal. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Greenstone, Julius H. The Messiah Idea in Jewish History. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society of America.
Greville's Life of Sir Philip Sidney. Edited by Nowell Smith. Clarendon Press. $1.75.
Hamlin, Charles S. The Act to Regulate Commerce. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.50 net.
Henderson, W. J. Sea Yarns for Boys. Harpers. 60 cents.
Herr, Paul. Das moderne Amerikanische Besserungssystem. Berlin: W. Kohlhammer.
Inge, William Ralph. Truth and Falsehood in Religion. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Jowett, Benjamin. The Interpretation of Scripture. Dutton. $1 net.
Kephart, Horace. The Book of Camping and Woodcraft. Outing Publishing Co.
Lincoln, Abraham. Complete Works of. Edited by J. G. and J. Hay. Vols. XI. and XII. Francis D. Tandy Co.
Many-Sided Universe, The. By C. M. E. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Marchesini, Giovanni. La Vita e il Pensiero di Ardigo. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.
Montgomery, Edmund. Philosophical Problems in the Light of Vital Organization. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Peacham's Compleat Gentleman. Edited by G. S. Gordon. Clarendon Press. $1.75.
Postal Guide, 1907. Albany.
Richards, Ralph W. Synopsis of Mineral Characters. John Wiley & Sons. $1.25 net.
Rogers, Arthur Kenyon. The Religious Conception of the World. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
Roosevelt, Theodore. Good Hunting. Harpers. $1.
Rosemary and Rue. Compiled by Eleanor K. Gordon. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Sélincourt, Hugh de. A Boy's Marriage. John Lane Co. $1.50.
Smyser, William Emory. Tennyson. Eaton & Mains. $1 net.
Snyder, Henry Nelson. Sidney Lanier. Eaton & Mains. $1 net.
Souvestre, Emile. Un Philosophe Sous Les Toits. Edited by W. H. Fraser. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Storr, Vernon F. Development and Divine Purpose. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Taylor, John W. The Coming of the Saints. Dutton. $3 net.
Theocritus. Translated by Charles Stuart Calverley. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Turner, George Frederic. Frost and Friendship. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Twain, Mark. Christian Science. Harpers. $1.75.
Walpole, Sir Spencer. Studies in Biography. Dutton. $4 net.
Wright, Sir A. E. Principles of Microscopy. Macmillan Co.
Young, Stark. The Blind Man at the Window and Other Poems.—Guenevere: A Play. The Grafton Press. $1.25 net.

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